

AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

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Title: A Study of Oregon Volunteer Long-Term Care Ombudsman Organizational
Commitment and Burnout as Related to Selected Variables.

Abstract approved:


Charles Carpenter

This research assessed volunteer long-term care ombudsmen's attitudes about their work and organizational experience as volunteer advocates and problem solvers for Oregon's approximately 27,000 nursing facility, adult foster home and residential care facility residents. The population included 254 volunteer ombudsmen representing 96% of the volunteers directly involved in community service during the survey period.

The study examined job context and demographic factors that researchers have found to be theoretically and empirically important to the understanding of human performance behavior as it relates to organizational effectiveness. The dependent variables of organizational commitment (the volunteer's attachment or loyalty to the organization's values and goals) and burnout (as measured in its three subscale dimensions of emotional exhaustion, client depersonalization, and a sense of low personal accomplishment).

Independent variables expected to be important to these dependent variables included role orientation (e.g., advocacy, collaborative, and neutral therapeutic role perspectives), role conflict (inter-personal and intra-personal sourced divergent role

expectations), role ambiguity (job confusion), job involvement (ego identification with job) and the demographic factors of age, gender, length of service and education.

Findings revealed that all job context variables, the three burnout dimensions and the demographic variable of age were significantly related to organizational commitment in the hypothesized directions. Perhaps one of the most important findings was the strong showing of job involvement as an important factor relating to both organizational commitment ($r = .50$) and personal accomplishment ($r = -.50$).

The study also suggested the importance of all job characteristic variables to psychological burnout in the dimension of personal accomplishment and, excluding the role orientations, to emotional exhaustion. However, only organizational commitment showed a significant relationship to depersonalization. Demographic factors showed less consistent relationships to the burnout dimensions.

Regression analyses proved significant in predicting dependent variables of organizational commitment, and the three burnout dimensions of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment.

This study provides strong direction for developing a model of organizational effectiveness incorporating the job context variables of organizational commitment, job involvement, role conflict and ambiguity, and the affect of personal accomplishment. Policy recommendations included training proposals designed to reduce role conflict and ambiguity, increase organizational commitment, job involvement and opportunities for personal accomplishment.

A Study of Oregon Volunteer Long-Term Care Ombudsman Organizational
Commitment and Burnout as Related to Selected Variables

by

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DEDICATED TO

My Children:

Cameron Wayne

and

Sarah Elizabeth

and to the special memory of

Winnie Irwin

whose friendship I will cherish forever

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A Study of Oregon Volunteer Long-Term Care Ombudsman Organizational
Commitment and Burnout as Related to Selected Variables

CHAPTER 1

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

Introduction

The research reported here assessed volunteer long-term care ombudsmen's attitudes about their work and organizational experience. The Office of the Long-Term Care Ombudsman is a statewide, community based, investigation, protection, and advocacy program designed to promote the rights and improve the quality of life for Oregon's long-term care residents. These residents live in Oregon's nursing facilities, adult foster care homes, residential care, and assisted living facilities.

This study targeted significant factors that researchers agree are important to the understanding of human job performance as it relates to organizational effectiveness. It flows from a model of organizational effectiveness (Freeman, 1984; Freeman & Reed, 1983) which suggested that the extent to which volunteer ombudsmen participate in the program and pursue organizational goals is a function of the complex interaction of organizational and work environments, as well as volunteer attitudes, behaviors, and personal characteristics. These variables reflect psychological, socio-environmental, and organizational structure/function theoretical perspectives. Independent variables have been selected from the literature on the basis of their theoretical and empirical relationship to organizational commitment and burnout. Independent variables were: role orientation (conflict, collaborative or neutral therapeutic), role conflict, role

ambiguity, job involvement, and the demographic variables of age, gender, length of service and education.

Justification

A large body of evidence suggests that America's long-term care residents are among the sickest, most frail, powerless, widely ignored and at risk segments of American society (Baltes, Burgess & Stewart, 1980; Goffman, 1961; Kosberg, 1973; Moss & Halamandaris, 1977; Oregon Office of the Long-Term Care Ombudsman, January, 1991; Williams, 1986; Department of Health and Human Services, Health Care Financing Administration, 1990).

To provide increased protection and advocacy for this relatively powerless population, the Congress of the United States under the Older Americans Act of 1978 (OAA), III, U. S. C., 712-713 (1991), mandated that each State establish an Office of the Long-Term Care Ombudsman to "investigate and resolve complaints made by or on behalf of the long-term care resident" (Oregon Revised Statute [ORS], 441-100-153 [1985]).

There has been a constantly growing body of research and testimony supporting the positive value of volunteers to American helping and human services (Baltes, et al., 1980; Gidron, 1983, 1987; Kayser-Jones, 1989; Lowy, 1982; Salem, 1978; Schwartz, 1982; Strickler, 1987; Wharton, 1991; Wineburg & Wineburg, 1987). In view of the growing reliance on volunteerism, Congress has, over the years, developed and strengthened OAA provisions encouraging the use of volunteers as the "backbone of the ombudsman service delivery system to safeguard the rights, check health conditions, and improve the general quality of life for long-term care residents" (Meredith Cote J.D., Oregon State Ombudsman, personal communication, March

1993). More recently, specific research on volunteer ombudsmen effectiveness supported strong positive ratings for the volunteer ombudsman's role in protecting, advocating, and improving resident conditions in both skilled and intermediate level nursing facilities (Cherry, 1991).

The key problems relating to the management of volunteers is finding, motivating, and keeping them. This has become increasingly difficult (Gidron, 1985; Jenner, 1984; Miller, Powell & Seltzer, 1990; Morrison, 1988). Federal fiscal cutbacks, shrinking government service capabilities, rapidly mounting service needs and growing entitlement expectations have placed an ever increasing burden on the estimated 52% of American population over the age of 13 who volunteer (Morrison, 1988). It is clear that finding, recruiting, and retaining volunteers will become increasingly competitive.

In view of the increasing reliance on volunteers, it is surprising that there is so little research on volunteerism in the context of organizational development. Research is needed to augment the virtually nonexistent literature on causes and consequences of volunteer motivation, satisfaction, dissatisfaction, and burnout. It was intended that this study should shed some light on why ombudsmen volunteers behave the way they do, so that practical interventions, policy improvements, and training applications can be designed and implemented to increase volunteer effectiveness in their mission of mercy and care

Purpose

The pupose of this study was two-fold. First, to explore factors that motivate and sustain effective volunteer organizational membership. Second, to explore factors that discourage effective volunteer organizational membership.

Specifically, on the positive side, this study examined certain job-characteristic and demographic factors that promoted the volunteer's loyalty and commitment to the organization and bound his or her attachment to the organization's philosophy and purpose. As such, it sought answers to the questions of what motivates, promotes, and sustains the volunteers' gifts of time, labor, and loyalty in effective service to organizational purposes.

On the negative side, this study explored the effects of job stress and strain that scholars agree undermine and diminish the volunteers' action and commitment on behalf of organizational objectives.

To these ends, this research specifically examined the perceptions of Oregon volunteer certified ombudsmen with respect to organizational commitment and psychological burnout. These dependent variables were studied in relationship to selected job characteristic and demographic, independent variables. This was done using multiple regression and correlation. Independent variables were selected from the literature on the basis of their theoretical and empirical relationships to organizational commitment and burnout. Independent variables were role orientation (conflict, neutral therapeutic and collaborative), role conflict, role ambiguity, job involvement, and the demographic variables of age, gender, length of service, and education.

It was expected that this study would find that these variables were importantly related to organizational loyalty as well as stress and burnout in the volunteer sphere. Another intended result of looking at these variables was to determine the extent to which ombudsmen volunteers understood their roles and assess the possible implications of those who didn't.

Research Questions

Specific research questions were:

1. Are there relevant relationships between organizational commitment and the variables of role orientation, conflict, ambiguity, and job involvement, and between the demographic factors of gender, age, education, and length of service?
2. Are there relevant relationships between the three dimensions of psychological burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment) and role orientation, conflict, ambiguity, job involvement and with the demographic factors of gender, age, education, and length of service?
3. Are higher levels of burnout, represented by high emotional exhaustion and depersonalization scores and low personal accomplishment scores associated with reduced organizational commitment?

Hypotheses

An examination of the relevant literature suggested the following research hypotheses which served as a frame of reference for the analysis of the data collected in this study. Hypotheses 1 through 5 were subordinate to research question

1. Hypotheses 6 through 10 were derived from research question 2. Research question 3 was addressed in hypothesis number 4.

- Hypothesis 1:** Higher levels of organizational commitment will be correlated with lower levels of role conflict and role ambiguity.
- Hypothesis 2:** Organizational commitment will be positively correlated with job involvement.
- Hypothesis 3:** Organizational commitment will be more highly associated with measures of the advocacy role orientation than levels of collaborative role orientation.
- Hypothesis 4:** Higher levels of organizational commitment will be linked to lower levels of burnout/emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and to higher levels of personal accomplishment.
- Hypothesis 5:** Higher levels of organizational commitment will be associated with greater age, lower educational attainment, and longer job tenure.
- Hypothesis 6:** Higher levels of depersonalization and emotional exhaustion and lower levels of personal accomplishment will be correlated with higher levels of role conflict and role ambiguity.
- Hypothesis 7:** The greater the level of job involvement, the lower the levels of depersonalization and emotional exhaustion, and the higher the level of personal accomplishment.
- Hypothesis 8:** Lower burnout in the dimensions of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization will be associated with higher levels of education and longer terms of service.

Hypothesis 9: There will be a negative association between lower levels of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment and older age.

Hypothesis 10: Males will exhibit higher levels of depersonalization than females, while females will show higher levels of emotional exhaustion.

**Background and Setting: The Need for Volunteer Ombudsmen:
Nursing Home Quality Care Issues**

In 1961 Erving Goffman published his seminal study entitled Asylums. In it, he painted medical-model nursing homes with the same stuporous darkness as military barracks, prisons, and mental institutions. He defined nursing homes as functional-specific "total institutions." He grimly characterized them as pathogenic, stifling, rationally planned, regimented, efficiency-oriented control structures which promote profoundly negative forms of resident psychological adaptation. He termed this destructive process "self mortification." Other researchers (Baltes, et al., 1980; Kayser-Jones, 1989; Kosberg, 1973; Moss & Halamandaris, 1977) have identified a number of maladaptive resident responses to the total institution. Infantilization, depersonalization, dehumanization, and victimization are terms they used to describe frequently encountered resident responses to the nursing home. They explained how the work of otherwise caring and conscientious nursing staff can sometimes extinguish residents' self-direction by either ignoring or punishing autonomous behavior, while encouraging dependent attitudes. These maladaptive responses may be further influenced by attempts to develop therapeutic environments which tend to promote safety over personal choice (The Oregon State Senior and Disabled Services Division,

1989). These threats to resident autonomy are often fueled by more mundane, but no less onerous problems, such as sheer, simple, and sometimes desperate loneliness (Moss & Halamandaris, 1977). The end result is all too often a profound loss of the resident's sense of positive identity, status, autonomy, privacy, intimacy and, ultimately, for many, the loss of the very will to live (Hoffland, 1988). In reviewing these risks, Kosberg (1973, p. 104), concluded that nursing home residents were "perhaps the most powerless, voiceless, invisible, and uncared-for group in this country."

While there are many well run nursing facilities, the inherent problems associated with institutionalization are further fueled by a widely perceived tradition of inept, misdirected, occasionally predatory, and ineffective management that leads to negligent or grossly negligent care (Bennet, 1980). While Mullen (1985) has suggested that this deplorable vision "seems to derive from a generally negative approach on the part of the media," empirical documentation tends to support Bennet's picture. The litany of troubles include:

Patient abuse and neglect, inadequate medical and nursing staff, overuse of psychoactive medications, inadequate nutrition, substandard sanitation, unsafe living environments, and fraud (Williams, 1986, p. 1297).

Studies and investigations undertaken by United States General Accounting Office (1987, pp. 2-3); the Department of Health and Human Services, Health Care Financing Administration (1990), and the Oregon Office of the Long-Term Care Ombudsman (January, 1991, p. 21) show that poor patient hygiene, ineffectual drug administration, lack of privacy, unsanitary conditions, improper restraints, unnecessary

confinement to bed, failure to offer exercise and hydration are problems regularly encountered by many of Oregon's long-term care residents.

The causes of poor care are many and well beyond the scope of this study. Personnel shortages, prospective payment systems, and ineffective government regulation add to the administrator's burden of implementing sound quality care measures in the face of the ongoing need to create institutional efficiencies and pressures to implement cost containment strategies.

In sum, much evidence seems to support the popular notion that the nursing home industry in America is a troubled industry. At the very least, in the words of Litwin (1982, p. 1), "the nursing home industry is in a sorry state." Improvement in long-term care conditions and quality of life for many long-term care residents will likely remain a significant unmet need. This need is expected to accelerate as increasing life expectancy will sharply heighten the demand for nursing home beds and other forms of long-term care in the future (United States General Accounting Office, 1991).

This mounting need laid the foundation establishing a rationale for the volunteer ombudsman form of citizen advocacy. Moreover, in Chapter II, research was reviewed that explored the indisputable socio-democratic influence and general effectiveness of volunteers in meeting human services needs (Morrison, 1988). More importantly, research specifically pointing to the effectiveness of volunteer ombudsmen was reviewed (Cherry, 1991). Together, the accelerating social need for efficient and effective action, coupled with the future potential for volunteer contributions pointed to an organizational priority to better understand what motivates volunteers to meet the important societal needs presented by America's long-term care system.

The next section lays the groundwork for the systematic exposition of the specific organizational problem addressed in this study. To this end, a brief introduction and review of this study's theoretical framework will follow.

Statement of Theoretical Framework

The main thrust of this study's theoretical framework concerns motivation. This research seeks to examine a model of job characteristic and demographic factors that, on the one hand, motivate effective action, and encourage commitment, and on the other hand, discourage the negative outcomes associated with burnout and dissatisfaction. Motivation theories are numerous. Essentially, however, they all seek to explain how workers are encouraged and controlled towards effective action in support of organizational goals. Factors examined in this research broadly relate to positive or negative work behaviors and attitudes that affect the volunteer's motivational valence.

Volunteer program managers are just as concerned with worker motivation as paid-work supervisors. In some respects their job is more difficult. Volunteer program managers must motivate volunteers to get things done without the influence of pay and other compensation benefits (e.g. health insurance, vacation, sick leave, child care benefits, etc.). Additionally, they must constructively manipulate non-paid organizational participants to work toward organizational outcomes without the dynamic of paid-work extrinsic controls (e.g., threats associated with the potential loss of pay, pay increases or other compensatory benefits that are always, at least implicitly, associated with paid work). This lack of material compensation is the fundamental difference in the relationship between paid employees, volunteers and their respective organizational associations. Significantly, however, it is important to point out that research suggests that pay is not an important motivator. In fact, pay may be what Herzberg (cited in Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) called a hygiene factor which, while it can prevent dissatisfaction, is not itself an intrinsic motivator. Instead, a body of

evidence (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988, p. 64) reports that motivators consistently relate to the job itself and include the following factors:

- Achievement
- Recognition
- Challenging work
- Increased responsibility
- Growth and development

These motivators contribute to the individual's positive self esteem. In so doing, they create good morale, work satisfaction, and heightened worker commitment to organizational objectives, motivating the worker towards action (Isley, 1990).

It is important to note that the morale and self esteem of both the paid worker and the volunteer can either be nourished or shriveled by organizational environments that either encourage or reduce barriers to personal achievement, job satisfaction, responsible action, and personal growth and development. And, as shall be seen in the literature review, job stress and strain (burnout), unclear work expectations (role ambiguity), divergent work outcome expectations (role conflict), low ego identification with the job (job involvement), and lack of a good fit between the worker's individual values and the organization's values (organizational commitment) minimize organizational satisfaction, reduce self esteem, lower morale, and discourage action towards accomplishing organizational tasks. These negative influences are the basis of numerous and serious management problems for supervisors of both paid employees and volunteers alike. Negative organizational outcomes include absenteeism, and other forms of unreliability, inappropriate job emphasis, (ombudsmen assuming an inappropriate dominant role orientation, such as a neutral therapeutic role as opposed to the advocate's role), poor performance, low output, disloyalty, and/or antagonism

towards the organization. Finally, without pay keeping volunteers linked to the organization, they are just more likely to simply walk away in abject frustration.

In short, attracting, training, and keeping volunteers involved in productive organizational activity is the means by which volunteer organizations accomplish their goals. To this end, burnout, role conflict, and confusion must be reduced or eliminated. Conversely, organizational commitment, job involvement and appropriate role and strategy orientations (advocate, collaborative, or neutral therapeutic) must be encouraged. And finally, the study examined the influence of age, education, length of service, and gender on selected variables to capitalize on any strengths and minimize any weaknesses associated with these demographic factors.

Definition of Terms

Descriptively, this inquiry examined the relationships among and between the study variables according to the following definitions:

Dependent Variables

1. **Organizational Commitment:** The extent to which organizational participants identify with and support the organization's goals and values (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974).
2. **Burnout:** A debilitating psychological work stress syndrome characterized by emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and a diminished sense of personal accomplishment (Maslach, 1982).

Independent Variables

1. **Role Conflict:** A form of role stress characterized by a condition in which a holder of an organizationally defined role experiences divergent, mutually exclusive expectations.

2. **Role Ambiguity:** An operationalized form of role stress characterized by a condition in which a holder of an organizationally defined role is confused by role expectations resulting in inadequate job performance and low job predictability.

3. **Role Orientation:** A philosophical perspective about the appropriate purpose and strategy for improving conditions in the long-term care facility. In this dissertation role orientation was measured by three dimensions: the consensual or collaboratively directed role orientation, the neutral therapeutic "middleman" role orientation and the advocacy or adversarial role, (Litwin, 1982). These role orientations were not mutually exclusive. It was expected that they would manifest in all ombudsmen to varying degrees and that while one orientation might dominate the ombudsman's personal perspective, it would not necessarily be the case for all or even most Oregon ombudsmen.

4. **Job Involvement:** The degree to which the organizational participant internalizes work goals and motivations and becomes psychologically identified with the job.

5. **Demographic variables:** Age, gender, duration of service, and education.

Study Limitations

Despite some potentially important implications of this study for voluntary action research, some study limitations should be clearly identified.

1. First, this study was limited to volunteer long-term care ombudsmen in Oregon.
2. Second, while the discussion of study findings was couched in terms that might imply speculation about causal ordering or cause and effect relationships, the cross-sectional and correlational analysis employed herein clearly prohibited any causal assertions.
3. This study was limited by the respondents ability to self report.
4. The organizational focus of the study did not take into account individual personality qualities, characteristics, or predispositions that might have influenced attitudes examined in this study. The choice was made not to explore psychological states because they were relatively insusceptible to educational modification.

5. Due the extreme paucity of empirical evidence regarding volunteer organizational motivation, this study draws largely on the considerable empirical literature regarding paid worker motivation.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The Long-Term Care Ombudsman Program: History, Function, Role, and Effectiveness

As mentioned in Chapter 1, a large body of research supports the critical importance of volunteerism to the American economy and to processes of democratic involvement and socio-institutional revitalization (Baltes, Burgess & Stewart, 1980; Gidron, 1983; Kayser-Jones, 1989; Lowy, 1982; Salem, 1978; Schwartz, 1982; Strickler, 1987; Wharton, 1991; Wineburg & Wineburg, 1987). But finding volunteers is becoming increasingly difficult. Decreasing tax bases, increasing governmental parsimony, coupled with increased social work caseloads present competing demands for volunteer time and energy. The dearth of volunteers will likely be exacerbated by a rapidly aging population, delayed retirement age and a shrinking birth rate. In addition, volunteerism has been attacked by feminists for exploiting and downgrading the status of women, the traditional "foot-troopers" of free service (Strickler, p. 194). Moreover, research indicates that retaining volunteers in a care setting may be especially difficult (Netting, Williams, Jones-McClintic, & Warrick, 1989). These factors may make competition for the volunteer's time and capacity even more intense in the future.

Nevertheless, just as volunteer resources are drying up, government, in its attempt to address mounting social concerns, increasingly relies on volunteers as "the mainstays of emerging programs. The spirit of voluntary cooperation is the rule rather than the exception" (Wineburg & Wineburg, 1987, p. 9). In fact, unpaid paraprofessionals already engage in an

almost endless array of organizational support activities that range from those complementing or supplementing the professional's function to fully assuming responsibilities that are virtually indistinguishable from an agency's paid professional staff (Gidron, 1987). The Oregon Certified Ombudsman volunteer functions this latter way.

Volunteer Ombudsman Effectiveness

A small but growing body of literature points to positive volunteer effectiveness when acting as paraprofessionals in a variety of social service roles. These roles include the advocacy, case management, and counselor functions associated with the ombudsman role (Gamm & Kasab, 1983; Hattie, Rogers & Sharpley, 1984; Kelly & Kennedy, 1982; Moore, 1987; Netting, Williams, Jones-McClintic, & Warrick 1989; Salomon, Tuzman & Wolbom 1987; Young, Larson & Gougher, 1983). However, very few empirical studies actually explored ombudsmen volunteer effectiveness. Monk and Kaye's New York Program studies (1981, 1982a, 1982b, 1982c) provided some early, albeit tentative evaluations. Their research rated volunteer ombudsmen interventions as moderately successful overall, as tentatively filling a service gap while presenting a sentinel effect that increased facility accountability. They also showed that volunteer ombudsmen were appreciated by residents who used program services and who reported comparatively high overall satisfaction with the effectiveness of ombudsman program interventions. Another study by Litwin and Monk (1987 p. 102) revealed significantly higher complaint reporting in facilities with assigned ombudsmen where mandatory abuse reporting was not required by law. This led these researchers to conclude that "nursing home patient ombudsmen do make a difference when it comes to the less tangible, but nevertheless significant aspects of day-to-day life in long-term care facilities." Cherry's (1991) study of Missouri nursing

homes showed a very strong positive influence of ombudsman involvement on the critically important areas of nursing care, with the presence of volunteer ombudsmen being significantly related to higher levels of care in intermediate care nursing facilities and with improved quality care in skilled facilities as correlated with multiple indices of care standards derived from state survey data. In fact Cherry noted that:

The presence of an ombudsman program was found to be the most important factor associated with quality for intermediate-care facilities, and it was significantly associated with quality for skilled nursing homes where there was ample staffing of registered nurses, (p.302).

Volunteer Research

What does the literature have to say about organizational behavior dynamics as applied to volunteer programs? Unfortunately, very little has been reported. While there are virtually thousands of studies on the importance and impact of specific variables as they relate to organizational behavior in the realm of paid employment, there is little empirical evidence for the influence of these factors in the sphere of volunteerism. Researchers (Daily, 1986; Gidron, 1985; Strickler, 1987) have commented on this paucity of information. Strickler writes:

The issue of volunteerism if discussed at all, is an indirect consequence of research on other topics. There are only a few articles falling into this category. . . . The author found only one article devoted specifically to a problem facing the utilization of volunteers in a social service: this was "Volunteer Ombudsman Burnout in Long Term Care Services: Some Causes and Solutions." While directed toward a very circumscribed group of volunteers, the article is notable for two reasons. First, it considers an important issue involving volunteers and, second, it deals with an area in which there could be tremendous potential for volunteers (p. 25).

Gidron (1985), in referring to the lack of attention to volunteer research, (aside from numerous volunteer characteristic or participation studies) suggested that it is not necessarily inappropriate to apply research from paid-service organizational effectiveness studies as volunteerism has many affinities to reimbursed employment (Gidron, 1983, p. 21). On the other hand, he warned that differences in volunteer motivation derived from the free will nature of their job involvement should also be taken into careful consideration. Implicit in this caveat was the notion that volunteers are bound to the organization differently than paid workers. Obviously pay is not a factor. It seems logical, then, to assume that the nature and strength of the volunteer's loyalty to the organization; his or her role perceptions in that organization, and other variables that research supports as sharing similarities in structure to paid-service work, will contribute to positive participant job outcomes.

The History of the Long-Term Care Ombudsman Model

To address mounting public concern about conditions in American nursing homes, Congress created the Long-Term Care Ombudsman Program in 1978 under the Older Americans Act. Despite some initial skepticism (Eckert, 1976; Mendelson, 1975), and political and institutional barriers, some successful ombudsmen pilot projects and programs began to gain popular and professional support during the 1980s. In 1986, the Institute of Medicine Committee on Nursing Home Regulation concluded that "successful ombudsman interventions have demonstrated the considerable value that these programs have for nursing home residents, but there are too few successful programs." Furthermore, the Institute of Medicine found that ombudsman efforts were generally hampered by insufficient "resources, staff, legal support, and training" (p. 179).

Despite sharing in these constraints, the Oregon program, has, nevertheless, been cited as one of the "successful" operations (Department of Health and Human Services, Office of the Inspector General, 1991). The Oregon Office was established by the passage of Senate Bill 421 in the Spring of 1981. In 1985 the Legislature made the Oregon Office an independent agency in the executive branch of government (Oregon Revised Statute [ORS] 441.100-153 [1985]).

While the organization, authority, philosophy, placement, and job functions of the Nations' 52 Ombudsman programs varies considerably (National Association of State Units on Aging, 1988a, p. i; 1988b), shared responsibilities include: "complaint investigation, technical assistance and training, advocacy including coordination with other state agencies, public education, and program management and development."

In Oregon, ombudsman duties are carried out by both paid professional and statutorily appointed volunteer paraprofessionals. These paraprofessionals have the legal authority to investigate and resolve complaints made by or on behalf of nursing home residents. The Ombudsman Program's paid central staff consists of a total of eight and one-half full-time equivalent employees. They supervise and support some 15 volunteer field managers, 265 certified volunteers directly performing facility monitoring duties, and another 157 volunteers involved in local recruitment, publicity and other program support and oversight work.

Well-trained volunteers are the heart of the Oregon ombudsman model. Oregon is one of only five state programs that requires an initial and ongoing training process and a certification examination for its volunteers. The Oregon Program was cited by the Department of Health and Human Services, Office of the Inspector General (1991, pp. 5-8) as one of the Nation's 12 model programs for its effective use, training, and retention of volunteers. Reasons cited for its success included frequent long-term care institutional visitation and problem intervention; "expeditious handling of complaints;

high visibility, strong enabling legislation, legal support" and its independent status.

The October, 1991 Ombudsman Program report (p. v) described the agency as meeting the following system needs:

- * The Long-Term Care Ombudsman program (LTCO) stands as a primary respondent and independent clearinghouse for all non-abuse long-term care complaints
- * The LTCO is the only organizational entity in the long-term care system without any financial conflict of interest with the nursing home patient..
- * The LTCO is an essential test and check and balance of government action and policy.
- * [The Office] provides the only regular community presence in many long-term care facilities. The local Certified Ombudsman is the only regular visitor that an estimated 50% of Oregon long-term care resident ever see."
- * [The Office] serves as a major alternative source of information regarding Oregon's long-term care system.

The Oregon Program Mission and Role Orientation

The Oregon LTCO Office has eschewed the classical ombudsman model in which the ombudsman role is perceived as "a nonpartisan arbitrator of specific complaints" (Blazyk, Crawford & Wimberly 1987, p. 451), The classical ombudsman is generally bureaucratically weak, "non-judgemental, and nonpartisan" and likely to focus on passive liaison functions (Monk & Kaye, 1982c, p. 194). The classical ombudsman model adopts a collaborative role orientation. Hocker and Wilmot (1991, p. 115) explain that "collaborative tactics . . . are designed to strive for a mutually favorable resolution. . . [with] all parties working together for solutions . . . [that]

maximize gains for all parties." Collaborative tactics are relationship oriented, flexible and trust producing; they minimize conflict, hostility, and adversarial interaction.

The Oregon program embraces the "patient rights model" with a strong consumer advocacy orientation. It meets Hyman's (1983, p. 1) definition of a "dialectical organization" in which the agency's legitimate authority, operational methods and client orientation "are antithetical to the bureaucratic form." In its intercessionary activity, the dialectical organization will do whatever it must, within legal limits, to secure client rights. This strong form of consumer advocacy and "watchdog" orientation occasionally brings the Oregon program model into the role of conflict or adversarial relationships (Blazyk et al., 1987; Hyman, 1983; Monk & Kaye, 1982a, 1982b, 1982c; Monk, Kaye & Litwin, 1984). An increasing number of ombudsman programs view this "as the most powerful approach" (New Mexico Office of the Long-Term Care Ombudsman, 1990, p. 37) and research by Litwin (1982, p. 110) supported the contention of some advocacy theorists that "change requires adversarial tactics and strategies if it is to be effected." This advocacy orientation was graphically expressed by former Oregon State Long-Term Care Ombudsman, K. O'Connell (personal communication, December 23, 1991) who asserted that "good ombudsmen are the enemies of bad care. An ombudsman program that avoids conflict is a program that doesn't work."

Nevertheless, it is important to note that collaborative techniques are utilized by Oregon ombudsmen for threshold and intermediate level problem resolution. Research on ombudsman role orientation (Litwin, Kaye & Monk, 1984) indicated that regardless of the official program role orientation (advocacy vs. collaborative), individual ombudsmen were generally equally divided between these strategic poles. This premise was further examined in this study. Despite the Oregon program's official dedication to the consumer advocacy model, this role-strategy continuum is reflected in

the fact that the preferred strategy orientation is collaborative, at least a beginning point for the problem resolution process. State Long-Term Care Ombudsman M. A. Cote, J. D. (personal communication, November 19, 1991) asserted that:

win-win is the ideal; cooperation is where we would like to begin and end all problem resolution involvement; that would be nice--but things just don't always work that way. We must be willing to press the resident's case beyond the limits imposed by a rigid collaborative model if need be.

Consequently, in Oregon, a facility's failure to resolve problems after initial presentation will result in the measured application of a stepped hierarchical approach to problem resolution that moves towards a model of technical advocacy. Non-collaborative, secondary and tertiary level resolution techniques may include hard negotiation, assertive professionally intense persuasion, warning, regulatory, and media referral, various forms of community action, and litigation (Oregon Office of the Long-Term Care Ombudsman, January, 1991). It should be stressed, however, that program policy requires that strong conflict oriented or adversarial techniques be utilized by staff and volunteers only as a last resort.

A Model of Volunteer Organizational Effectiveness

From the field of organizational behavior, Likert (1967) identified organizations as synergistic entities comprised of discrete, multivariate, independent, but interacting subsystems. These subsystems included: task/goal subsystems, which embraced the work accomplished to fulfill the organizational mission; structural subsystems, encompassing formal organizational boundaries, lines of authority and policies; and

"stakeholder subsystems," including distinguishing and idiosyncratic participant behaviors, attitudes, affects, expectations, and values (Bowditch & Buono, 1990).

Stakeholder subsystems were the foci of this research. Freeman (1984) argued the importance of identifying key organizational stakeholders' perspectives about their organizational experience to better understand factors influencing them. Understanding the attitudes of targeted, key stakeholders would allow for the manipulation of organizational subsystems to promote desirable behaviors and outcomes among the stakeholder group to promote organizational goals. In the ombudsman program, key stakeholders include government, paid professional and support staff, senior advocates, care providers, residents and their family members, and the ombudsmen themselves who were the specific foci of this study. In short, it is the respective values, roles, attitudes, and interests of the volunteer ombudsmen that need to be understood if their participation, satisfaction, and effective commitment are to be maximized (Gidron, 1983).

According to Freeman's stakeholder model, organizational effectiveness derives from the motivational strength of organizational role holders as reflected in desirable role behavior. Motivation, in turn may be seen as the interactive, reciprocally influential outcome of individually held stakeholder values as shaped by administratively determined factors such as organizational philosophy, strategy orientation, training, and leadership styles. The review of relevant research and theory showed that the dependent variables of organizational commitment and burnout, and the independent variables of role orientation, role conflict, role ambiguity, job involvement, and the demographic variables of age, gender, duration of service, and education, constituted factors important to the morale and motivation of paid workers and important determinants of the way they go about their business. Based on that, this research focused on the nature and strength of the volunteer's commitment to the

organization; his or her role perceptions in the organization, and to other variables supported as contributing to positive participant outcomes. Moreover, this study focused, with the exception of selected demographic variables, on factors that were susceptible to organizational modification and practical intervention through training, job design, and policy change.

Organizational Commitment

The concept of organizational commitment has received much attention from researchers over the last 20 years. Many areas of organizational endeavor--with the exception of volunteerism--have assiduously utilized the organizational commitment construct to better assess and understand the work related behaviors and attitudes of organizational participants in relation to the broader issue of organizational effectiveness (Jenner, 1984; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). As Decotiis and Summers have observed "commitment is central to organizational life" (1987 p. 467) and investigators have linked low levels of organizational commitment to increased absenteeism and turnover (Blau & Boal, 1987) and high organizational commitment to job satisfaction, job involvement, and other positive aspects of job performance. Miller, Powell, and Seltzer's (1990) research on attrition failed to show that organizational commitment had a direct influence on turnover but suggested that organizational commitment and other attitudinal factors indirectly influenced behavioral intentions to leave which in turn directly affected turnover.

Monk and Kaye (1982b) have suggested that organizational commitment would be of importance to volunteer ombudsman performance. Dailey has observed that (1986, p. 20) organizational commitment is "central to the volunteer experience." Isley pronounced that "voluntary action is inconceivable without commitment" (1990, p. 8),

and argued that organizational commitment is the key to understanding volunteer loyalty. He identified the main objects of volunteer commitment as : "individuals in need, ideals, and organizations" (p. 8). These values are the guiding values of the Oregon ombudsman model which is driven by the objective of meeting resident needs through patient rights idealism.

Dailey (1986) pointed out that most researchers causally relate organizational commitment to employee satisfaction. However, commitment itself is not a form of motivation. Rather, it inspires motivation which in turn leads to organizational action (Isley, 1990). Voluntary action research is clear that commitment is critical to the volunteer program managers' raison de etre, which is to find, keep, motivate, and use volunteers for organizational ends (Jenner 1984).

Dailey's (1986) study of volunteer organizational attachment was consistent with the vastly larger body of paid employee commitment literature which, while equivocal in certain respects, nevertheless, generally supported the notion that organizational attachment was a critical factor in the worker's intensity of job-role participation (Welsch & LaVan, 1981). Moreover, Schaubroeck and Ganster (1991) found that organizational commitment was significantly associated with volunteers' willingness to offer time and talent to the organization.

While researchers accepted the importance of organizational commitment, definitions of the construct varied somewhat. Porter's definition will stand as the basis for this study (Porter, et al., 1974, p. 604): He defined organizational commitment as the "strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization." This relatively broad definition was characterized by both behavioral and affective components as expressed by Porter, et al. (p. 604):

(a) a strong belief in an acceptance of the organization's goals and values; (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; (c) a definite desire to maintain organizational membership.

Jenner (1984, p. 991) suggested that organizational commitment is of higher consequence to volunteer organizations than job satisfaction, she wrote:

Commitment, behavioral and attitudinal, may be even more important to voluntary organizations than to employing organizations. The difficulties of recruiting and motivating volunteers are persistent topics in the not-for-profit sector. Leaving a volunteer job does not involve loss of pay, and positions are relatively available, so there is high potential for mobility with the volunteer labor pool. . . . Research indicates that volunteers tend to emphasize moral considerations such as belief in organization purpose and the desire to be of service as primary reasons for volunteering.

That organizational commitment has barely achieved attention by students of voluntary organizational effectiveness is particularly perplexing given Jenner's (1984) reasonable assumption that organizational commitment is even more important to voluntary organizational relationships than to non-voluntary ones. While Jenner's own research failed to directly support this assumption, at least with respect to turnover, empirical support for her assertion was posited recently by Schaubroeck and Ganster, (1991) who found that organizational commitment was significantly associated with volunteers' willingness to offer time and talent to the organization. They further suggested that organizational commitment is especially important to public service organizations as opposed to "fellowship/professional development organizations" (p. 579) because in human service organizations volunteers "act primarily in accordance with their values." This aspect of organizational commitment has been labeled by Randal, Fedor and Longenecker, (1990 p. 212) as "normative commitment"

which elicits a dutiful response from the organizational participant who serves loyally because it is the "right and moral thing to do."

Morrow's study (cited in O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986), has identified over 25 organizational commitment definitions and measurements. However, O'Reilly and Chatman (p. 492) observed that "the central theme that continues to appear is the individual's psychological attachment to an organization." This "attitudinal commitment" model is by far the most influential (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Williams & Hazer, 1986) though a model of secondary importance focuses on the behavioral antecedents and consequences of commitment (Salancik, 1977). This behavioral or "exchange model" conceives organizational attachment as a function of the calculated personal investment and exchange value placed on the job by the employee (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Koslowsky, Caspy & Lazar, 1988; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983). It is a transactional model and can be expressed by the formula:

$$\text{Commitment} = (\text{Rewards} - \text{Costs}) + (\text{Investments} - \text{Alternatives})$$

Researchers using this model equate high levels of organizational commitment in the context of a motive force or drive influence that results in work related behaviors. Put simply, high levels of organizational commitment are linked with exceptional levels of behavior (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987). This is at once the appeal of the equity model and possibly one of its drawbacks, as DeCotiis and Summers explain:

A potential problem with this perspective is that while it is intuitively appealing to view extraordinary behavior as commitment behavior, it is difficult to distinguish such behavior from its other sources such as an effective reward system, lack of opportunity for alternative employment, and so forth (p. 446).

The theoretical basis for the more widely studied attitudinal model derives its focus from the individual's attachment to the organization's role and mission and to his or her individual role-activity and involvement in relation to the larger organizational purpose. This affective attachment model seems more appropriate to the "role state" focus of this study. It is in line with Schaubroeck's et al. (1991) research which underscores the central importance of public service volunteers' value orientation as related to organizational commitment, Schaubroeck explains:

If the behavior needed by the organization is not congruent with the values which form the basis for the individual's membership in the organization, commitment to the organization, regardless of its level, may not instill in him or her a desire to significantly extend the role. . . . If commitment were important only because it taps a more general dimension of positive affect, the commitment should have been related to voluntarism in all types of organizations (p. 579).

For these reasons the attitudinal perspective with its behavioral implications will be the contextual model framing this literature review of the organizational commitment construct.

As mentioned earlier, organizational commitment is a cognitive affective state with behavioral manifestations or implications, generally indicative of "satisfaction" with the individual's organizational involvement (Luthans, Baack & Taylor, 1987; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Porter, went on to say that this attachment is distinguished by three constituent dynamics: "(a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and (c) a definite desire to maintain organizational membership" (p. 604).

Organizational commitment is closely associated with the concept of job satisfaction, but is conceptually differentiated from job satisfaction by its more "global orientation" towards the whole organization's higher purpose, philosophy, defining

culture, and mission. Another difference posited by Steers (cited in Dailey, 1986) is that organizational commitment develops more slowly than job satisfaction and is conditioned by a greater variety of factors. Job satisfaction, on the other hand, is conceived of as a relatively changeable affective orientation to intrinsic job content factors, such as job autonomy, complexity, variety, pressure, and perceived importance, and to extrinsic job context factors, such as supervision, money, status, security, promotional probabilities, and general working conditions. Consequently, job satisfaction is more narrowly linked to the immediate work environment than organizational commitment (Chieffo, 1990; Glisson & Durick, 1988; James & Tetrick, 1986; Williams & Hazer, 1986).

It is instructive to note that while many studies pointed to a strong relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction, the exact nature of this relationship is the basis of ongoing debate. While Welsch and LaVan (1981) noted the intuitive validity of the reciprocal causality of organizational commitment and job satisfaction, recent empirical studies by Brooke, Russell and Price (1988) and Mathieu and Farr (1991), supported Mowday's et al., (1979, cited in Welsch & LaVan, 1981) assertion that the two concepts differ in certain key respects. These recent studies found only a moderate degree of interrelatedness between organizational commitment and job satisfaction (and job involvement), leading researchers to argue for the continued distinction between the two variables.

A second issue appertained to the relationship of organizational commitment and job satisfaction that should be mentioned, is the ongoing debate concerning the causal ordering of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Some scholars have assumed that organizational commitment is a consequence of job satisfaction (Bluedorn, 1982; Buchanan, 1974). This preponderant view enjoys much empirical support. However, Bateman and Strasser (1984) presented evidence suggesting that

organizational commitment was an antecedent of job satisfaction. The issue was further complicated by Curry, Wakefield, Price, and Mueller's (1986) longitudinal replication of the Bateman and Strasser design which included additional controls for measurement of error that had not been taken into account in the original study. Their findings were neither confirmatory of Bateman and Strasser's (1984) conclusion nor of the more widely held view that organizational commitment is a consequence of job satisfaction.

The precise nature of the relationship of organizational commitment to the concept of job satisfaction will continue to be a source of speculation and research for some time to come. For these purposes, one might gain additional insight into the meaning of organizational commitment by evaluating it in relation to the notion of organizational satisfaction. Organizational satisfaction might be defined as a form of membership gratification that is different in its source and focus than the more proximate, job-content-and-context (e.g., instrumental) sources and foci of job satisfaction. The notion of organizational satisfaction appears to have much in common with Pearce's (1983) model of volunteer "intuitive gratification." In this context, the term "intuitive" implies a cognitive or felt gratification that is value linked as opposed to the instrumentally linked notion of job satisfaction. This ideational framework admittedly lacks empirical support but, nevertheless, seems intuitively valid. It conceives of the volunteer's sense of satisfaction/gratification as a result of his or her contributions to the organization's overall mission as well as to the internalization of the organizations' guiding values. The result, Pearce holds, is a positive affect that reinforces the bond between the volunteer and the chosen vehicle of organizational participation. In other words, in the context of volunteerism, Pearce suggested that organizational commitment-satisfaction might be seen as a consequence embracing organizational objectives which serve as the motive for doing the job in order to achieve organizational ends and purposes.

Organizational Commitment and Job Involvement

Job involvement has been alternatively termed as ego involvement or work role involvement (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965; Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977). It is defined as the extent to which the volunteer internalizes the organization's values and makes them his or her own. Job involvement reflects the extent to which the organizational participant psychologically identifies with the role he or she plays in the organization. While much less studied than organizational commitment, job involvement is, nevertheless, empirically linked to a variety of work performance factors such as employee absenteeism, turnover, and burnout (Blau & Boal, 1987; Nagy, 1985; Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977; Reitz & Jewell, 1979).

The relationship of organizational commitment to job involvement is of central relevance to this study. Job involvement is held to be an important factor influencing the employee's self esteem. While this variable has been researched only with respect to paid employees, it is conceived of as an intrinsic motivator that seems to be highly relevant to voluntary job participation.

Job involvement is a multidimensional theme that is predominantly conceived of as the extent to which the individual is psychologically invested in his or her work role (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965). Lodahl and Kejner theorized that job involvement was a value orientation. This psychological job identification is conceived of as deriving from the employee's internalization of the social and related moral characteristics of the job, job setting, or situational factors including co-worker/superior interactions, (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965), work autonomy, (Lorence, 1987) and job status as well as other operationalized aspects of the protestant work ethic linked to job output and outcome measures and perceptions (Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977). Rabinowitz and Hall's review

of job involvement literature led them to present the following characteristics as being provisionally associated with a job involved worker:

The job-involved person is a believer in the Protestant Ethic, is older, has internal (vs. external) locus of control, has strong growth needs, has a stimulating job (high autonomy, variety, task identity, and feedback), participates in decisions affecting her or him, is satisfied with the job, has a history of success, is less likely to leave the organization (p. 272).

It might be added that research has also shown men tend to be more job involved than women, though as Lorence has noted (1987) this trend may have begun to change in the mid-seventies, and a recent study by Lambert (1991) showed no significant difference between men and women's reported levels of job involvement.

Job involvement is widely conceived of as a distinct concept, though some scholars have questioned any clear-cut disjunction between job involvement and organizational commitment (Steers, 1977, cited in Brooke et al., 1988). The conceptual differentiation of organizational commitment and job involvement seems transparent: Organizational commitment reflects the individual's commitment to the organization's defining goals and values while job involvement addresses the employee's psychological identification with the job as a factor relating to self image.

Job Involvement and Job Satisfaction

Once again, in trying to gain a better understanding of a variable important to this project, it should prove useful to compare the features of job involvement to job satisfaction. However, the difference between job involvement and job satisfaction is a bit more abstruse and harder to nail down than the difference between job satisfaction

and organizational commitment because they derive their defining qualities from the individual's specific job experience. Conceptually, job satisfaction reflects how much the individual emotionally likes his or her job in view of both its context and content, while job involvement reflects the cognitive affect of job influenced self imagery and work role preoccupation (Brooke et al., 1988). Discriminant validation measures indicate that while closely related, job satisfaction and job involvement are clearly discrete variables (Brooke et al., 1988). Gechman and Wiener (1975) found that devoting time to work-related activities was positively correlated to job involvement, but not to job satisfaction, while mental health was linked to job satisfaction and not to job involvement. These relationships were cited as supporting the discriminant validity of the two variables. Additional confirmatory evidence may be inferred from the theoretically consistent evidence that job satisfaction is a more ephemeral, situationally dependent morale affect, while job involvement represents a more stable, self-defining belief state that is relatively insusceptible to organizational modification (Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977). Researchers have also found that high job-involved workers dedicate more time to their work than job-satisfied workers (Gechman & Wiener, 1975). This is consistent with the theoretically based expectation that there will be a reciprocal investment of time linked to levels of self esteem gratification associated with the ego-involved worker.

The theoretical assumption underlying the supposition relating organizational commitment to job involvement is that jobs are created and maintained by the organization to support organizational objectives. Insofar as the employee is psychologically and productively involved in performing tasks supportive of organizational objectives the assumption is that a correlation will exist between organizational commitment and job involvement. In other words, it seems valid to assume that employees who strongly identify psychologically with their jobs will feel

positively about their job's organizational context. Blau and Boal (1987, p. 289) speculate that organizational commitment and job involvement "function as interactive orientations." While empirical support for this view was confirmed in Mathieu and Zajac's meta-analytic study (1990) and in research by Mathieu and Kohler (1990), evidence presented by Dailey (1986) regarding the organizational commitment of volunteers was non-supportive. In explaining this negative correlation, Dailey speculated that job involvement might be a function of "proximate" and more ephemeral job content/context features to which the individual's psychological response is more sensitive and fluidly reactive to immediate conditions than the more tenure related cognitive attitude of organizational commitment. More recently, however, Randall and Cote, (1991) have affirmed a strong relationship between job involvement and organizational commitment and have asserted that job involvement represents a factor that must not be overlooked when assessing models of organizational commitment.

Organizational Commitment and the Question of Causal Ordering

Aside from the difficult issue of the interrelatedness of organizational commitment to job satisfaction and job involvement, other more widely accepted antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment have been extensively studied. In the main, organizational commitment antecedents are classed as organizationally related factors while consequences are conceived of as behavioral outcomes and intentions (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Briefly, empirical evidence suggests that organizationally bound antecedents of organizational commitment include the concepts of role conflict and role ambiguity as well other organizational structure characteristics (such as organizational size and degree of centralization) that have only a vicarious relevance to this dissertation study

(Brooke, Russell & Price, 1988; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Organizational commitment consequences, are generally linked to issues of turnover, tardiness and absenteeism, (Bluedorn, 1982; Decotiis & Summers, 1987) and to such motivationally oriented performance factors as creativity and innovation, (Katz & Kahns, 1978, cited in Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), promotability, and overall performance (Meyer, Pauonen, Gellatly, Goffin & Jackson, 1989) as well as to a number of work related psychological attitudes that include job stress and dissatisfaction (Leiter & Maslach, 1988). On the other hand, high levels of organizational commitment are positively associated with higher levels of job involvement and job satisfaction (Morris & Steers, 1980; Morrow & McElroy, 1986).

Organizational Commitment and Organizational Tenure

Organizational tenure, along with other demographic characteristics, have long been recognized by scholars as a factor of some relevance to organizational commitment, though as DeCotiis and Summers have observed (1987), the relationship is something less than impressive. With respect to tenure, it is postulated that the longer one stays with an organization, the more they have invested in the organizational relationship. This relationship is reciprocal. It is envisioned that employee's contributions are in some respects time related if not time-dependent, and organizational rewards such as seniority, promotion, increased responsibility, pay increases, and pension benefits mount with organizational longevity. Of course, not all these factors are at play in a volunteer organization, though it seems intuitively valid that tenure, promotion, expanded responsibility, and a reciprocal investment in training represent forms of equity investment that may have a similar effect on strengthening a volunteer's organizational commitment. Whether as a paid employee or volunteer, it would seem

that as long as this investment exchange is perceived as equitable it might be assumed that the impulse towards organizational commitment would strengthen over time (Steers 1977, cited in Luthans, et al., 1987).

As indicated, the link between organizational commitment and organizational tenure is generally supported in the literature. In a study of paid employees, Salancik, (1977) found an affinity between organizational commitment and the individual's service tenure as did Stevens, Beyer and Trice, (1978, cited in Glisson & Durick, 1988) and Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979). Further broadly confirmatory evidence was presented in Mathieu and Zajac's recent meta-analysis (1990) though the effect was characteristically small.

Organizational Commitment and Age

Age is another personal factor that has been reported to be positively associated with organizational commitment ([Angle & Perry, 1981; Hrebiniak, 1974; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Lees, 1971; Luthans, Baack & Taylor, 1987; Morris & Sherman, 1981; Sheldon, 1971; Steers, 1977, as cited in DeCotiis & Summers, 1987] Sager, 1991a). Mathieu and Zajac's meta-analytic study found a "medium positive correlation between age and commitment" and that organizational commitment was more highly associated with attitudinal commitment, the theme for this study, than with the transactional model (1990, p.177). Larson and Spreitzer (1973) suggested that older employees characteristically develop higher job oriented work commitment which correlates with motivational satisfactions. Meyer and Allen (1984) asserted that the older organizational participant is more highly invested in his or her affective commitment to the organization; and has cognitively accepted his or her organizational role. Moreover, it is expected that older age is linked to greater investment in the

organization and increased likelihood of a more prolonged pattern of equitable interaction between the individual and the organization.

Organizational Commitment and Gender

While less attention has been paid to the effect of gender on organizational commitment, Grusky (1966, cited in Mathieu & Kohler, 1990) theorized that women would develop higher levels of organizational commitment than men because of greater barriers to organizational involvement requiring greater investment to secure organizational security. Women who make this investment, Grusky reasoned, would have had to overcome a good deal more strain and conflict than men. The result, he argued, would be that women who made this investment and continued their association with the organization, would be more highly committed to their organizational relationship than men. Empirical support for this position is equivocal at best, with some studies showing no gender differences (Angle & Perry, 1981) and others (Hrebiniak & Alutto 1972, cited in Decotiis & Summers, 1987) actually reporting higher levels of male organizational commitment. This last finding is more in line with classic primary role theories regarding the apparently greater importance of work commitment to males, whereas females have historically been associated with non-organizational roles (Barnett, Biener & Baruch, 1987). Moreover, as Witt has observed (1988, p. 421), this idea also accords with "the stereotypical notion that female employees have higher absenteeism and turnover rates (i.e., they are less committed) than male employees." But are these "classic paid work" theories and assumptions relevant to organizational commitment research as applied to volunteer organizations? It seems at least intuitively valid that they probably are not relevant to volunteer work. Their application to the field of volunteerism might be questioned in

view of the overriding historic importance women have played in America's volunteer movement. In fact, volunteerism has in the past been characterized as the domain of the white middle class female. In view of this, it would seem obvious why volunteer organizations have spent considerable effort to target, promote, recruit, train and otherwise accommodate the entrance and retention of women who have been the traditional lifeblood of their existence. Moreover, Mathieu and Zajac (1990, p. 177) have called Grusky's theory into question even as it relates to paid employment because of the apparent reduction of barriers that women now face in the work place. Further, they reported in their meta-analytic study that despite finding a "slightly stronger correlation" between attitudinal organizational commitment and gender, there doesn't appear to be any significant correlation between gender and organizational commitment per se. Unfortunately there are apparently no studies addressing the issue of gender and organizational commitment in the context of volunteer organizations.

Organizational Commitment and Education

Higher levels of education have generally been negatively associated with organizational commitment (Angle & Perry, 1981; Mathieu & Hamel, 1989; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982, cited in Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), this negative association was further tested in this study.

The underlying assumption for this association was derived from paid work studies which center on the notion that more highly educated organizational participants have greater opportunities to change organizational alignment than less educated personnel. It may also be that it is more difficult for an organization to meet the arguably higher needs and expectations of the better educated organizational participants

(Mowday, et al., 1982, cited in Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Other possible explanations may include the factors derived from equity theories of motivation. These views speculate that more highly educated people may require commensurately higher rewards to achieve equity expectations. Moreover, higher educated workers may have greater needs for activity, diversity and exploration which would work against organizational entrenchment. It may also be more difficult for organizations to meet the achievement expectations of more highly educated workers.

Other personal characteristics and affective factors positively associated with organizational commitment include the following: Marital status, though this connection is weak, descriptive in nature, and without clear-cut supporting conceptions (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990); the individual's internalization of the protestant work ethic (Decotiis & Summers, 1987), the need for achievement, and for interdependent relationships (Luthans et al., 1987). Luthans et al., (1987), and Witt (1988) have also presented evidence that internal locus of control, may present a strong and direct influence on organizational commitment. Ability is also positively linked to organizational commitment (Mathieu & Kohler, 1990) which supports the supposition that more capable employees are treated better by the organization and are consequentially more likely to have a positive evaluation of the existing equity relationship. On the other hand, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) also found a strong positive correlation with perceived ability and organizational commitment, speculating, albeit tentatively, that this affect may have derived from the individual's perception of the extent to which the organization provides acceptable levels of achievement and growth opportunities.

While job content characteristics are of only casual interest to this study, it is worth noting that researchers have found some evidence for a positive correlation between the variables of skill variety, job scope, autonomy, and organizational

commitment. However, these affinities are, with the possible exception of job autonomy, fragile at best and are, as Mathieu and Kohler have observed, virtually devoid of any rationale or theoretical framework (1990).

Organizational Commitment, Role Conflict, and Ambiguity

Research on organizational roles has identified both positive and negative aspects of role involvement and orientation that are in turn associated with job related behaviors and attitudes that tend to promote either organizational effectiveness or dysfunction. The theoretical roots for the study of role involvement derive from psychological, psychotherapeutic, and sociological theory and embrace the notion that "there are certain kinds of transactions that are prescribed for certain kinds of relationships" (Swenson, 1973, p. 374). These transactional relationships have been characterized as role expectations. They are the duties, privileges, and responsibilities associated with a given role. The behavioral manifestation of the role sender's performance of role expectations and allied transactions is defined as role enactment. The constituent dynamics of role enactment include the number of roles or role components a person is given, the level of involvement the individual has with the role and the amount of time the role sender is involved in the role.

Put simply, role conflict exists when role expectations overlap or are in conflict. For example, the volunteer ombudsman is told to advocate for residents, develop positive lines of communication with care providers, and pursue punishment for the errant actions of the caregivers with whom they work side by side. Ombudsmen are asked to monitor (watchdog) the system, while simultaneously building a trusting rapport with those who run that system. While they may have personally held conflict resolution styles and strategies, they are instructed to follow an organizationally

prescribed stepped hierarchical process of problem resolution that may end in intense assertiveness and even emotional turmoil. They are legal agents of the state with considerable statutory authority, but are also citizen volunteers with a status widely perceived to be less than that of the paid professional. But they have the professional's authority and responsibility. In light of these sometimes divergent goals, it seemed reasonable to assume that role-conflict would arise when the ombudsman is torn between competing role expectations. Moreover, as Lauffer has observed (1984, p. 41) role conflict and strain are more prevalent in situations where the role-holder comes into "contact with the external environment . . . [and] must satisfy expectations with people both within the organization and outside of it." This is precisely the position that the volunteer ombudsman is in. It seems very likely that the ombudsman is literally torn between simultaneously incompatible role demands and requisite contradictory behaviors. This "uncongeniality" between multiple role demands is linked to high levels of role strain and role stress which can leave the individual in a "state of confusion and cross-pressures" (Pearlin, 1983, p. 16). To further illustrate this point it is worth noting that ombudsmen may become confused about the appropriate role to play in a particular situation (mediator, arbiter, knowledge-broker, warning agent, "stool-pigeon"--the list can go on, ombudsmen are encouraged to follow prescribed process, but are also encouraged to be creative). This confusion is called "role ambiguity" (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snowe & Rosenthal, 1964). One intent of this study was to determine the extent to which ombudsman volunteers understood their roles and to assess possible implications for those who didn't.

There exists a huge body of empirical evidence concerning the significant job context correlates of role conflict and ambiguity. As Bowditch and Buono (1990, p. 132; Courage & Williams, 1987; Lauffer, 1984) have observed, role conflict and role ambiguity are "associated with lower levels of job satisfaction and performance, and

increased experiences of stress and burnout." While virtually all role conflict and ambiguity studies involve paid workers, the structural similarities of the role dynamics addressed by the "conflict-ambiguity" construct are also shared by volunteer ombudsmen. It is expected that this study will find that these variables are also significantly related to stress and burnout in the volunteer sphere.

Formal role expectations are established by organizations. In the ombudsman's case, formal role expectations are outlined by the legislature as interpreted through administrative rule and program policy. Policy is developed by paid professional staff and implemented through increasingly professionalized training and supervision. However these formal role expectations are influenced by the demands of co-workers, different job requirements, patterns of social interaction and other extra-organizational environmental and job-context variables (Kahn et al, 1964). And because these organizationally defined role components are multiple, highly interactive, and not always congruent or fully understood, and because the role sender must interact with other role senders, both within and outside the organization, certain forms of role dysfunction, have been identified of importance to organizational effectiveness (Kahn, et al., 1964; Swenson, 1973). The dysfunctional aspects of role involvement have been largely examined in view of the concept of role stress as operationalized as role conflict and role ambiguity.

Role conflict and role ambiguity are respectively associated with the undesirable organizational influences of divergent priorities or objectives and unclear expectations (Loewenberg & Dolgoff, 1988). Most research on role conflict and ambiguity derives its conceptual framework from the work of Kahn, et al. (1964)

Kahn et al., (1964) defined intra-role conflict as conceived of as a clash of inconsistent role expectations by the holder of an organizational office. They examined five aspects of role conflict: 1) intra-sender role conflict which reflected an inconsistent

role expectation from an individual role holder; 2) inter-sender role conflict which reflected divergent role expectations from more than one member of a role set; 3) inter-role conflict which reflected divergent expectations resulting from two or more different role holders; and 4) person-role conflict which spoke to incongruities between the role holder's personal values and role related expectations and 5) role overload which reflected converging pressures on the role holder derived from the interaction of any of the preceding factors within a compressed time period. With the exception of inter-role conflict, all of Kahn's et al., (1964) role conflict factors, related to incongruous expectations arising within a single role holder (King & King, 1990). This individual role focus was consistent with the role conflict focus of this dissertation.

Kahn et al., (1964) defined role ambiguity as resulting from the role holder's lack of clear information about the full dimensions of his or her organizational position. This confusion may relate to intra-role expectations regarding role requirements and objectives, performance expectations associated with the role; uncertainty regarding whose role expectations must be met and ambiguity regarding expected performance outcomes. Lowenberg and Dolgoff (1988, p. 67) have identified aspects of role ambiguity that might present ethical problems for individuals involved in social work. These included:

1. Uncertainty about values and goals.
2. Uncertainty about scientific knowledge and about the facts relevant to any specific situation.
3. Uncertainty about the consequences of intervention.

A central hypothesis forwarded by Lowenberg, was the idea that role ambiguity was more of a problem for those involved in helping professions than in other endeavors (1988, p. 68). This assumption was based on the theoretical proposition that: 1) social workers are involved in a sea of grey and must deal with issues with

which society itself has not fully come to grips; 2) social work lacks a highly developed knowledge base--there is no orthodoxy as is frequently enjoyed by other professions; 3) people involved in the helping professions have less control over the manner and outcome of possible interventive actions and strategies when compared to other professional fields with more highly established standards of practice or commonly agreed to principles of due process.

Kahn et al., (1964) recognized the close relation between role conflict and role ambiguity cause and effect but postulated their conceptual distinction on the basis of expected independent occurrences. The evidence generally supports this discriminant validity, nevertheless, Van Sell, Brief and Schuler have observed that, "one should not expect their empirical indices necessarily to be unrelated," (1981, p. 44).

Subsequent research on role conflict and role ambiguity has almost exclusively focused on the negative outcomes and correlates which include, job dissatisfaction, frustration, turnover, absenteeism, burnout, tardiness, stress, and related adverse physical consequences (Van Sell, Brief, & Schuler, 1981). Sarbin and Allen (1968) have explored several potential, organizationally maladaptive responses to role conflict and ambiguity that emerge when the role sender attempts to resolve conflicting or ambiguous role situations. Typically, the role holder who is confused or conflicted might attempt to lessen or eliminate the role stress effect by redefining or abandoning the conflicting or ambiguous role dimension in question. He or she may also attempt to reduce or eliminate the stress effect by changing work related values or beliefs or by changing their attention deployment, ignoring one role behavior or aspect, for example, while aggressively attending to another.

While the empirical relationship between organizational commitment and role conflict and role ambiguity is without a well developed theoretical framework (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), Brooke et al. (1988) have noted that the effects of role conflict and role

ambiguity, whether combined or separate, resulted in a condition of role stress that inhibited the integration of the employee's value system into that of the whole organization. This lack of congruence was assumed to be detrimental to organizational effectiveness and was reported in the literature to be associated with negative organizational outcomes such as burnout, absenteeism, tardiness, job dissatisfaction, and other factors associated with poor performance and organizational dysfunction.

While there was no study directly assessing the influence of role conflict and ambiguity to volunteer organizational commitment, mountainous research on the paid worker's experience of role conflict and ambiguity has produced some cloudy and antithetical findings (Klenke-Hamel & Mathieu, 1990; Salancik, 1977; Schaubroeck, Cotton & Jennings, 1989). Nevertheless, the preponderance of the research supports a direct negative correlation between role conflict and role ambiguity and higher levels of organizational commitment (Brooke et al., 1988; Fisher & Gitelson, 1983; Jackson & Schuler, 1985, [cited in King & King 1990]; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Miles, 1975; Mowday et al, 1982, [cited in Mathieu & Zajac, 1990]; Reicher 1986; Van Sell, et al., 1981). Still, firm conclusions regarding the relationship of organizational commitment to role conflict and role ambiguity, in terms of empirical support, must remain general and directional in nature. Yet it seems safe to conclude that a relational trend has emerged in the literature in which the evidence suggests that organizational commitment is negatively correlated to role conflict and role ambiguity but is probably moderated by other factors that are not yet identified.

Another possible connection assessed in this study is the relationship of organizational commitment to the ombudsman's dominant role perspective or orientation.

Organizational Commitment and Role Orientation

Another individual component of the role theory discussed in this study relates to the concept of role orientation "Role orientation is generally conceived of as a subjective, complex and situationally grounded phenomenon or process which provides the necessary linkage between the cognitive and overt dimensions of behavior" (Rosenberg, cited in Litwin, 1982, p. 73). Initial research on ombudsmen role orientations was undertaken by Monk and Kaye (1982a, 1982b, 1982c) who identified three dominant role/strategy dimensions along a continuum which reflected the three theoretical models of the classical, hybrid, and advocacy oriented ombudsmen perspectives discussed in the literature.

While these perspectives overlapped and were not mutually exclusive, homogeneous patterns or dominant role subsets comprising related attitudes, associative tactics, and functional styles were confirmed as discrete homogeneous subscales by Monk and Kaye (1982c) and by Litwin's application of the principle component method of factor analysis (1982). The three perspectives were: 1) the classical ombudsman model of the impartial mediator, 2) the partisan ombudsman or resident advocate model and, 3) a hybrid type of role orientation which is directed to the therapeutic support of the resident as opposed to any problem resolution style or tactic.

It is important to point out that while these perspectives represent a continuum of strategy perspectives, ombudsmen themselves may or may not necessarily be dominated by any one perspective. In fact, it is expected that this research will show that in Oregon, where there is a stepped process of problem resolution spanning the strategy orientation scheme presented by Monk and Kaye (1981a, 1982b), volunteers will show scores in all strategy ranges and may even give equal weight to all three dimensions, collaborative, advocacy, and neutral therapeutic orientations.

Collaboratively oriented ombudsmen strategies are concerned with problem resolution but assume a stance that might be characterized as nonpartisan (Monk & Kaye, 1982a, 1982b, 1982c). The communication role might be associated with that of a middle-man or liaison role which plays an integrative function in coordinating patterns of communication between involved parties and solving problems through voluntary agreement. This implies an acceptance of the functional integrity of the focal organizational system, in our case, the nursing home. Dysfunction is conceived of as a breakdown in human communication or other organizational factors that can be repaired through the restoration of organizational equilibrium. In short, collaboratively orientated ombudsmen see the system as structurally sound. Problems are largely the result of human dysfunction (Litwin, 1982)--the status quo is essentially accepted. The mediative or collaborative orientation that results from this view is in line with the classical ombudsman model (Monk & Kaye, 1982c) which emphasizes impartial and objective problem resolution through win-win strategies of interpersonal communication. In sum, the collaborative oriented ombudsman is one who values fairness and seeks to achieve improved resident conditions by consensus oriented, or win-win methods that preserve positive provider-relationships and other involved parties.

Monk and Kaye (1982c) found that the mediative role more accurately reflected the sample population's role state than the advocacy oriented ombudsmen.

The partisan patient's rights or consumer advocacy ombudsman role focus embraces a contest strategy orientation which implies a willingness to champion the resident's cause regardless of consequences for the interpersonal relationships. Advocacy oriented ombudsmen have been characterized as "arguers, reformers and watchdogs" (Monk & Kaye, 1982a, p. 367). The roots of this perspective derive from the macro-sociological conflict perspective which envisions societal dysfunction

as consequence of "illegitimate social control and exploitation" (Horton, cited in Litwin, 1982). According to this theory, the interests of the power-holders (in the case of the nursing facility, the administrator, the owner or the corporate office) are seen as being influenced by interests that are at least to some extent contrary to the interests of the resident (Litwin, 1982). Conflict oriented advocates believe that those who are without much power or influence (e.g. residents) must be protected from the competing considerations that sometimes motivate or otherwise influence power-holders (Litwin, et al., 1984). Litwin (et al., 1984) commented on this protective "watchdogging" attitude:

Facility watchdogging constitutes the ultimate vote of "no confidence" in the long-term care system as it is presently constructed. Holders of this perspective invariably doubt the good intentions of nursing home providers or their ability to consistently maintain adequate standards in the face of cost constraints. They doubt, furthermore, that quality of care can coexist with a proprietary philosophy. Efforts at collaboration are suspended according to this perspective in favor of an aggressive watchdogging of the entire system (p. 278).

An expression of this view is seen in the advocacy oriented ombudsman's perspective that nursing facility administrations have an inherent conflict of interest with the resident inasmuch as facility management, even if committed to quality care, must also be attentive to the organizational requirements for efficiency. Quality care and organizational efficiency are seen as sometimes conflicting considerations (Personal communication with Meredith Cote, Oregon State Long Term Care Ombudsman, February 4, 1992).

The advocacy orientation assumes that an adversarial relationship may have to be assumed in some cases to assure desired outcomes as there exists an objective incompatibility between the values and priorities of care recipient and care giver.

Litwin (1982) has defined this advocacy stance as a conflict orientation. And while theoretical definitions of conflict vary (Fink, 1968), common definitional themes embrace notions of contesting power bases struggling over divergent values, scarce resources, influence and power itself. In these types of contests, mutually satisfying outcomes are impractical, impossible, or seen as undesirable by either one or more of the struggling parties (Hocker & Wilmot, 1991).

The pure contest oriented ombudsman perspective holds collaborative techniques such as mediation, conciliation, and negotiation as having only limited value because of the vastly disparate power relationship between the resident and care provider and because the ombudsman/advocate does not have the right or authority to negotiate away legal requirements for nursing facility conformity to legal standards of care and resident rights, nor do they see themselves as being in a position to accept a loss that affects the interests and rights of others.

The advocacy oriented Ombudsmen perspective is focused on arguing the resident's case and will resort to methods of coercive power if necessary. As such the advocate orientation will generally be more problem and task centered than the collaborative orientation. As Hocker and Wilmot have discerned (1991), there is an implicit element of inflexibility in this "coercive power orientation." This assumption is illustrated by the ombudsman/advocate's stance that the resident's interests must prevail over competing and sometimes inimical facility values and goals.

It is also of interest to note that because nursing facility's are so highly regulated, many, perhaps even most of the problems encountered by ombudsmen are issues addressed by law and rule (Institute of Medicine Committee on Nursing Home Regulation, 1986). Consequently, ombudsman/advocates are directed towards requiring compliance to legal standards. This concern with legal compliance lends itself to conflict strategies that tend to be characterized by hard negotiation, persuasion,

warning, referral for corrective action and other coercive techniques, which are not normally in the repertoire of the collaborative oriented ombudsman.

In sum, the conflict oriented ombudsman is not overly concerned with preserving positive provider relationships, but rather is prepared to engage in compliance oriented, task centered win-lose forms of advocacy to promote the residents interest above all other considerations (Litwin, 1982). As Moore has observed, this adversarial approach can lead to "antagonism" (cited in Litwin, 1982, p. 45).

It is important to emphasize that both collaborative and advocacy orientations are concerned with promoting the resident's best interest, but differ in their conceptions of the nature of dysfunction and the most effective means to resolve identified problems. In the Oregon program both roles are emphasized in the context of a strategy continuum. Ombudsmen are expected to begin all problem resolutions in a collaborative mode. If this attempt fails, then a advocacy strategy orientation is required. Consequently, Oregon ombudsmen embrace both ranges with collaboration being the beginning point but advocacy dominating as a last resort.

A third role variable has been identified that mediates both the collaborative and advocacy orientations discussed so far.

This third type has been characterized as a hybrid type of role dimension. Monk and Kaye, (1982c) and Litwin (1982) identified it as being therapeutic in nature and suggested that it is evidenced by the ombudsman's friendly and helping attitude towards the individual resident. Monk and Kaye (1982b, p. 195), described this therapeutic or supportive role:

This individual focuses on the provision of emotional support and the expression of friendly concern or caring. The effort here is to prevent the weaker party from suffering unnecessary psychological pain or discomfort in its interactions with a dominant authority . . .

While the evidence for this role is unimpressive, Litwin's (1982, p. 82) factor analysis supported this neutral therapeutic role as a discrete role orientation variable subsuming the contest /collaborative continuum, but found it to be less than a useful predictor for the factors under investigation. One might speculate that this was due to the fact that this hybrid dimension was, in fact, part of the role behavior exhibited along the entire continuum by both advocacy and collaborative oriented ombudsmen.

The research on the organizational consequences of ombudsman role orientation, as unimpressive as it is, presents some findings that make sense theoretically. Ombudsman in the advocacy orientation, for example, report perceptions of achieving greater impact in the area of facility policy and planning than is reflected by the reported perceptions of collaboratively oriented ombudsman (Monk & Kaye, 1982a). Litwin (1982, p. 109) also found that "contest oriented ombudsmen scored statistically and significantly higher in their impact ratings," than collaborators. This finding is in line with Hocker and Wilmots' (1991) conclusion that collaborative strategies may sometimes prove to be indecisive and fickle because they can become too highly focused on other parties' interests. Given the collaborative orientation of the New York State Ombudsman Program, Litwin (1982) evinced surprise in finding that advocacy oriented ombudsmen had higher mean scores than collaborators in five defined systematic areas of involvement which include: 1) proposing changes, 2) resolving complaints, 3) supporting policy changes, 4) preventing reoccurring service deficiencies, and 5) promoting legislative change.

In view of these findings it seems at least somewhat ironic that researchers also report (Litwin, 1982; Monk & Kaye 1982c) that advocacy oriented ombudsmen actually felt relatively powerless when compared to collaborators. It is interesting to note that Oregon Ombudsmen in Multnomah County (Portland Multnomah Commission on Aging, 1989, p. ES-2) also reported dissatisfaction regarding the

"lack of resources to do the job, and perceived failings of nursing homes in supporting ombudsmen efforts."

Despite this feeling of relative powerlessness and a generally high rate of ombudsman turnover in both key role dimensions, Litwin (1982) found that all ombudsmen reported a high degree of job satisfaction, with collaboratively oriented ombudsmen showing higher mean scores than contest oriented advocates, though this difference did not achieve statistical significance. As alluded to before, an empirical case exists supporting a positive relation between high organizational commitment and high job satisfaction. Furthermore, it would stand to reason that higher organizational commitment would be exhibited by ombudsmen sharing the role orientation institutionalized by the organization. This assumption may be reflected by the higher job satisfaction ratings among collaboratively oriented ombudsman, as might be the anticipated finding in a collaboratively oriented ombudsman program such as New York State's.

But, despite the absence of an empirical case, Monk and Kaye (1982b) have speculated that organizational commitment would be a predictive correlate to organizational effectiveness and cited evidence that a sense of accomplishment, though less important than altruistic motivations, is associated with a willingness to continue volunteer program participation, an assumed behavioral consequence of high organizational commitment. Moreover, it seems intuitively valid in light of Schaubroeck and Ganster's, (1991) theoretical formulation of the positive motivational relationship linking organizational values to the volunteer's personal values, that ombudsmen exhibiting a specific orientation would be more highly committed to an organization that embraces and institutionalizes that same orientation value as a guiding program principle and philosophical linchpin. Put simply, it might logically be expected that volunteers will be more committed to an organization that shares or

reflects their own values. Given the strong theoretical basis for this association, an examination of this connection was relevant to this study.

Organizational Commitment and Burnout

Another demographic/affective variable of direct importance to this study is burnout. The dearth of information regarding the linkage between organizational commitment and burnout is somewhat surprising giving the preponderant attention paid to occupational stress over the last 15 years. The absolute absence of research regarding the relation of these two variables in the context of voluntarism is, however, less surprising.

In any case, burnout is an affective response to job stress and results in emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal lack of accomplishment. While some researchers argue that negative affectivity should be studied as a correlate to burnout (Brief, Burke, Webster & Robinson, 1988; Chen & Spector, 1991), the preponderance of evidence suggests that burnout is an organizational issue (Maslach, 1982). As with the debated connection between organizational commitment and job satisfaction, the issue of the causal ordering of burnout and organizational commitment is open to some question and the clouded nature of the relationship has been underscored by recent research (Leiter, 1991; Leiter & Maslach, 1988) which suggests that while the contiguity of burnout and organizational commitment is present, it is also relatively weak and exceedingly difficult to interpret. There is, however, strong empirical support that burnout is related to higher absenteeism and turnover, factors that show strong negative correlations to the mediative variable of organizational commitment.

The organizational commitment /burnout link is theoretically envisioned as a consequence of the enervating disengagement that results when burnout leads to the employee's reduced willingness and ability to meet organizational goals. This in turn tends towards an affective devaluation by the employee of motivating organizational values and ultimately to lower levels of organizational commitment (Leiter & Maslach, 1988; Leiter, 1991). We should now take a closer look at the ideational construct of psychological burnout and how it relates to the independent variables examined in this study.

Burnout

The word burnout was popularized by Freudenberger in the early seventies (1977a, b). It was a new name for the old problems of adverse job stress and strain outcomes, including work, exhaustion, "fatigue and frustration brought about by devotion to a cause, way of life, or relationship that failed to produce the expected reward" (Freudenberger, 1980, p. 13). While subsequent definitions of the multidimensional syndrome differ somewhat from researcher to researcher (Jackson, Schuler & Schwab, 1986; Meier, 1983). Kahn (1978) linked burnout to dysfunctional emotional symptoms and diluted psychic energy directed towards the self and client. Burnout embraces emotional, physical and behavioral dimensions. Occupational definitions of burnout have focused on the syndrome's association with absenteeism, turnover, lower productivity, work related dissatisfaction a depletion of energy, reduced productivity and other adverse functional outcomes as well as increased morbidity (Rogers, 1987; Veninga & Spradley, 1981). Most researchers have focused on burnout as a consequence of chronic emotional overload. Pines and Aronson (1988, pp. 9-10) offer a valuable summary that reflects this dominating perspective:

Burnout is formally defined and subjectively experienced as a state of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion caused by long-term involvement in situations that are emotionally demanding. The emotional demands are most often caused by a combination of very high expectations and chronic situational stresses. Burnout is accompanied by an array of symptoms including physical depletion, feelings of helplessness and hopelessness, disillusionment, and the development of a negative self-concept and negative attitudes towards work, people involved in the work, and life itself. In its extreme form burnout represents a point beyond which the ability to cope with the environment is severely hampered.

People involved in human service work have been identified as being especially susceptible to the effects of job burnout. (Beck, 1987; Cherniss, 1980; Freudenberger, 1977a, b; Himle, Jayaratne & Thyness, 1989; Meier, 1983; Shinn, Rosario, Morch & Chestnut, 1984; Stav, Florian & Shurka, 1987). These researchers have shown that job stress and its potential consequence of occupational burnout represents an affective response that may be symptomatic of serious organizational or individual role dysfunction. Neugeboren (1985) linked burnout to high levels of worker dissatisfaction, absenteeism, and attrition--the worst nightmares of volunteer program supervisors everywhere. As such, burnout was characterized as an important organizational problem (Maslach, 1982). Maslach and Jackson, (1981a, 1981b), link the burnout affect to prolonged intense involvement with a unending stream of hard-or-impossible-to-resolve client problems. Kaye and Monk, (1988, p. 58) also warned that stress and discouragement associated with long term care service "cannot be emphasized enough." The result of endless client demands and accompanying stress is all too often a numbing sense of futility, a gnawing frustration, that if left untreated, can result in total emotional exhaustion. Other researchers address environmental issues (Litwin & Monk, 1984), such as social isolation lack of organizational resources, or "resistance by nursing home administrators" (Litwin & Monk, 1984, p. 101). And while research and theory have much to say about the influence of client contacts to

contacts to burnout, as shall be shown, the volunteer ombudsman's position with respect to a sometimes hostile work environment has been graphically described by Monk et al. (1984, p. 165):

... the work of the ombudsman is the most difficult in the field of aging. The program hardly backs up its participants with technical resources and updated information, it is underfunded, and it provides no incentives other than the challenge of the job itself. It requires, furthermore, that individuals with often limited training and armed primarily with good will and intuition enter into hostile environments where they are confronted by a powerful and multimillion-dollar industry capable of counterattacking with a barrage of almost unlimited legal resources. The lonely ombudsman enters a battle from which he or she will come out scarred and often deeply shaken, dealing with people who resist them and yet having to come back again and again and again. As one ombudsman put it, "when you go to a place where people block you, sabotage you, and refuse to talk to you how long can you take it?"

But what about hard research on burnout and volunteerism? Once again the literature on volunteerism is scarce and virtually without empirical support. Kessler (1991, p. 18) has noted that volunteers are as susceptible to burnout as paid workers, though she suggested that it might "take them longer to get there." But burnout among volunteers has received very little actual attention. In the absence of a developed theory of volunteer burnout, an attractive explanation for this presumed prolonged burnout germination among volunteers might be found in the part-time nature of their work and/or their greater control over patterns of participation. However, there is no empirical support for this seemingly logical assumption. In fact, in a study of the differences between part-time and full-time worker's experience of role strain, Steffy and Jones (1990) actually discovered the counterintuitive finding that part-time workers were more burdened by job strain than full-time workers. Regardless, as we have seen, Litwin and Monk (1984, p. 100) argue that volunteer ombudsmen "face

prototypical obstacles that characteristically foster discouragement, and more typically, total disengagement from the helping professions." A 1989 report prepared for the administration for aging by the National Association of the State Units on Aging, National Center for Long Term Care Ombudsman Resources (p. 1), drew further attention to the "degree of frustration and stress involved in the role which can lead to burnout and high turnover." A tracking study of new ombudsman attitudes (Portland Multnomah Commission on Aging [PMCOA], September 1989, p. ES-2) indicated that new ombudsmen in Oregon were concerned about low program support levels. This led the PMCOA researchers to conclude that, in their isolation, new ombudsmen relied on clients for social interaction and satisfaction which they theorized, "may tend to make ombudsmen excessively vulnerable to the problems of the elderly and their experiences, with the long term care system." New ombudsmen were also concerned about the lack of resources to get the job done, were almost exclusively dependent on clients for any sense of experienced job satisfaction, and expressed similar dissatisfaction with the "perceived failing of nursing homes in supporting ombudsman efforts." These unfavorable attitudes are reflected in the broader literature as being highly correlated to burnout and turnover. The Oregon volunteer ombudsman attrition rate exceeds 25% of the volunteer force annually (Oregon Office of the Long Term Care Ombudsman, January, 1991). Specifically, with respect to ombudsman programs nationally, burnout has been identified as a result of the frustration and stress that is part of the ombudsman experience (National Association of State Units on Aging, National Center for Long Term Care Ombudsman Resources, 1989). Among the 46 substate ombudsman programs studied, burnout, frustration and role stress was cited as the second leading cause of volunteer ombudsman turnover, trailing only after illness and change in health status.

Psychological burnout may result from the volunteer's incapacity to meet the system challenges discussed above, or from the press of other challenges presented by a seemingly endless stream of client problems; however, if the affects of depersonalization, emotional exhaustion, loss of idealism, low morale and job disengagement are fairly widespread, then the deficiency may not be in the volunteer, or in the volunteer alone, but in the parent organization (Neugeboren, 1985).

Burnout is associated with what Cherniss (1980) termed ambiguous institutional goals (which relate to the concepts of role conflict and ambiguity). It has been cited as causally related to decreased job satisfaction (Wolpin, Burke, & Greenglass, 1991); linked to turnover and is negatively correlated with job involvement (Nagy, 1985), and role conflict and ambiguity (Pines & Aronson, 1988).

Christine Maslach (1982) from the University of California, Berkeley, perhaps the most widely published and influential burnout researcher, has established the primary outcome-dimensions of burnout as emotional exhaustion depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment (Lee & Ashforth, 1990).

Emotional exhaustion was linked by Maslach and Jackson (1981a), to fatigue, heightened anxiety, tension, and generally depleted energy reserves. It is conceived of as a result of the human service worker having to give of him or herself emotionally in almost continuous support of clients who are frequently without hope (Pines & Aronson, 1988). This aspect of burnout reflects the human dimension of job-stress in which the helping professional is virtually devoured by the limitless emotionally demanding needs of chronically troubled client populations whose problems never seem to diminish or improve (Beck, 1987; Maslach, 1982; Stav, et al., 1987). The emotional exchange between the helping professional and the client is one sided, as is to be expected in the client centered realm of social work where the professional's intervention is solely determined by the client's needs. Meeting those needs is the sole

justification for the social worker's involvement. Her own personal feelings must remain subordinate to the legitimate needs of the client. This creates frustration. This frustration is worsened as the social worker attempts to meet client needs within the belly of a stuporous, unbending bureaucracy (Etzion & Pines, 1986). Frustration is a given. The risk of failure is high. It seems almost as if the helping professional is set up by the system to feel both technically incompetent and emotionally depleted (Pines & Aronson, 1988). The emotionally challenged and overworked social worker is often left feeling that she has not made a meaningful contribution to the client--a wound that is often salted by the client's own bitter concurrence. This asymmetrical situation is particularly demanding of sensitive people, who are more likely to be drawn to the helping professions in the first place (Cherniss, 1980; Pines & Aronson, 1988). Researchers have argued that burnout is particularly threatening to the highly motivated, enthusiastic and inexperienced helping practitioners (Cherniss, 1980; Courage & Williams, 1987; Freudenberger, 1980; Walsh, 1987), who idealistically and passionately hurl themselves into the abyss of limitless client needs, only to be bled white and left emotionally bankrupt. In this view, the idealistic worker is demoralized by the routine, reactive and remedial nature of their excessively regulated work and by the limitless needs of clients who are often resistant or not as pleasant and thankful as the idealists had supposed they would be (Cherniss, 1980). Left frustrated and psychically drawn, the helping practitioner may begin to develop negative attitudes towards the client (Corcoran, 1987). In the end, guilt is heaped on frustration. A common defense is to emotionally disconnect from the client altogether (Maslach, 1982). Cherniss (1980) has identified this attitudinal change as a coping mechanism to reduce the pain of being highly psychologically involved in their client's needs. Dr. Abraham Monk, of Columbia University, testified before the House of Representatives' Select Committee on Aging. He argued that environmental stressors

faced by ombudsmen lead to a sense of isolation and an erosion of the idealistic motivation (cited in National Association of State Units on Aging , National Center for Long Term Care Ombudsman Resources, p. 7). This loss of idealism, is associated with the helping practitioner's coping mechanism of emotional distancing which is a prerequisite for Maslach's second burnout dimension: depersonalization.

While the condition of detached concern is a worthy goal for the empathetic helping professional (Pines & Aronson, 1988), depersonalization is a form of psychological distancing where clients are stripped of their humanity and reduced to the status of mere objects (Jackson et. al., 1986). Unlike people, objects are unworthy of "compassion, empathy and warmth " (Pines & Aronson, 1988, p. 93).

Depersonalization represents a defensive reaction that is a primarily escapist coping behavior (Lee & Ashforth, 1990). This defensive emotional withdrawal buffers the helping professional from further psychic bleeding but does not protect the practitioner from feelings of guilt and a gnawing sense of inadequacy and personal failure.

The helping practitioner's perception that his or her actions are ineffective or else meaningless (Jackson et al., 1986; Maslach, 1987) induced negative self evaluations regarding the individual's general ability to effectively respond to the environmental conditions. Litwin and Monk (1984) have speculated that volunteer ombudsmen who must rely on comparatively weak informal problem resolution techniques such as persuasion and mediation may be particularly susceptible to a sense of failure, frustration, and reduced self regard. Such self-perceived ineffective response capabilities result in Maslach's third burnout dimension (Maslach & Jackson, 1981a), the psychological reaction of "reduced personal accomplishment" and are associated with the helping professional's diminished motivational expectancy. This in turn, leads to such adverse behavioral consequences as lower productivity, job-

dissatisfaction, and eventually increased turnover as employees begin to scan the environment for more personally fulfilling positions.

As we have seen, burnout research efforts have resulted in analyses of the phenomenon as both an individual and systems deficiency (Neugeboren, 1985). And, while it is also true that personal incompetence and negative affectivity have been examined as correlates to burnout (Brief, et al., 1988; Chen and Spector, 1991), the preponderant view is that burnout is a result of organizational dysfunction (Burke & Greenglass, 1989a, 1989b; Leiter & Maslach, 1988). This organizational hypothesis addresses a person-environment interaction within an organizational context. This model has been enunciated by Maslach (1982), who described how organizational structure sets interactional patterns and other work environment factors such as job features, organizational expectations, supervisory practices, work load, support networks, and client populations. Generally these aspects of the work environment represent antecedent conditions that may lead to work stress and the strain--the psychological responses and attendant behavioral consequences discussed above.

The following is a review of research findings relating Maslach's three component burnout model to the independent variables examined in this study: role orientation, role conflict, role ambiguity, job involvement, gender, age, education, and duration of service.

Burnout and Role Orientation

Very little research exists relating volunteer ombudsman burnout to the conflict (advocacy) and collaborative role orientations empirically supported as being held by ombudsmen (Litwin, 1982; Litwin, Kaye & Monk, 1984; Monk & Kaye, 1981, 1982a, 1982b, 1983; Monk et al., 1984). Litwin (1982, p. 143) found that

advocacy oriented ombudsmen perceived the system as presenting greater challenges and obstacles to task accomplishment and greater discouragement than was the case with collaborative oriented ombudsmen. Advocates were more concerned about their perceived lack of legal authority to accomplish their mission and also felt that the volunteer nature of their job somewhat diminished their authoritative capacity to effect positive nursing home change.

Litwin (1982) also showed that contest oriented ombudsmen viewed nursing staff less positively than collaborative oriented ombudsmen. Opposition by staff, and especially opposition by nursing home administrators was seen by advocates as being significantly enervating. This is not at all incongruent with the contest orientation held by advocates. After all, noncollaborative conflict strategies, even when advanced in a nonaggressive style (e.g. a professionally intense encounter resulting in a warning, defined by the Oregon Ombudsman Program as a friendly but courteous explanation of potential outcomes for administrators failing to take legally or morally prescribed actions) can lead to tension, anxiety, anger, and frustration (Hocker & Wilmot, 1991, p. 10; Lazarus, 1963). These factors are empirically supported as antecedents to burnout. Payne and Bull (1985) also found that expressions of appreciation were important to volunteer satisfaction. Conversely, it may logically be argued, that ombudsmen, who are cast into an environment where their efforts are generally not particularly appreciated by the caregiver, nor always by the care recipient (Monk, 1982a), are prone to develop a number of dissatisfying perceptions. Some of these views pave the way for feelings of in-efficacy and low personal accomplishment, two important dimension of burnout discussed in this study.

It is also important to note that contest oriented advocates expressed a greater need for supervisory support. This is logical for at least two reasons. First, ombudsman per se, are isolated from other ombudsmen and program supervisory staff.

Second, advocacy oriented ombudsmen may experience more hostility from co-workers (co-worker being here defined as the care giving professionals with whom the ombudsman actually works side by side on a weekly basis). This reported need for increased supervisory support seems at least indirectly corroborated by the informed intuitive perceptions of the current Oregon State Ombudsman, Meredith Cote and other volunteer staff managers (Personal communications, March 12, 1992). Cote asserted that "the more involved and active advocate types require greater central office support than those volunteers who are less involved in problem investigation and resolution."

The contest oriented advocate's increased need for support, especially supervisory support, has been identified by Litwin et al., (1984) as a determinant of burnout. This would seem to make sense but the theoretical basis for this seemingly logical connection is equivocal at best (Dignam & West, 1988; Ganster, Mayes & Fusilier, 1986; Kaufman & Beehr, 1986; Lefcourt, Martin & Saleh, 1984; Marcelissen, Winnubst, Buunk & De Wolff, 1988; Russell, Altmaier & Van Velzen, 1987). One assumption regarding the role of support to burnout is that insufficient support directly results in job stress and strain while the other perspective is that social/supervisory support is, in fact a moderating influence that only mitigates the adverse consequences of work role tension (Kaufman & Beehr, 1986). While the study of the impact of support is beyond the scope of this study, it seems important to be aware that the relationship of support to volunteer commitment and burnout is both simple and complex. It plays out along an intricate web of interindividual affective differences as moderated by factors identified in this research and other influences as yet unidentified. In this connection, it is interesting to note that both advocacy and conflict oriented ombudsmen were bothered by the lack of supervisory support, though the difference is merely a matter of degree (Litwin, 1982). Furthermore, both collaborative and contest oriented ombudsmen were concerned by inadequate training

and were distressed by the chronically precarious conditions of nursing home residents. One could infer from this that New York ombudsmen, whether collaborative or contest oriented, viewed their work environment to be generally less than supportive.

This attitude in itself has implications for the appearance of burnout. For example, worker confidence that adequate support will be available if needed has been linked by researchers to the worker's positive coping with job stress and strain. (Jayaratne, Himle & Chess, 1988). Thus, while it is not certain, we might reasonably expect that: 1) the widespread ombudsman perception of a less than adequately supportive environment might generally be associated with higher levels of burnout--an assumption not initially postulated nor directly examined in this study and, 2) assuming that the perceived need of social support holds true for Oregon contest oriented ombudsmen--another assumption not specifically examined in this study--then, we might logically expect to find that contest oriented advocates will be more susceptible to burnout than collaboratively oriented ombudsmen--a theoretical assumption that will serve as the ideational underpinning of this study's direct examination of the advocate oriented ombudsman's reported perceptions of burnout.

Burnout and Role Conflict

Empirical support for the association of role conflict to burnout has been addressed by most burnout researchers, though almost never in the context of volunteerism. Nevertheless, role conflict has a long history of being associated as an antecedent to burnout.

The theoretical assumptions concerning the adverse effects of competing goals, the hallmark feature of role conflict, has already been discussed in this study and clearly seem logically applicable to the volunteers' job role. Suffice it here to say that role

conflict results when providers, clients, and other involved parties have different expectations regarding the appropriate role of the ombudsman. The role holder becomes torn between these conflicting obligations that result in powerful mental demands that over time draw mightily on the service workers' psychic energy (Beehr, Walsh, & Taber, 1976; Pines & Aronson, 1988). If unrelieved, this enervating competition between conflicting demands inexorably pulls the worker into the dark well of emotional exhaustion. Her energy reserves are at last overdrawn and nearly bankrupt, and the helping professional has lost motivational strength to meet work role expectations. She loses interest in her job. This, in turn, may lead to guilt ridden suffering, reduced feelings of personal accomplishment, and other factors that Kahn summarized as (1978) inappropriate attitudes towards her work and client.

But what does the empirical evidence say about the role conflict /burnout connection? At least as early as 1964 Kahn et al. argued that role conflict was linked to job stress and disengagement, by 1978, he had concluded the role conflict was the most important contributor to burnout. These findings were supported, albeit undramatically, by Rizzo, House and Lirtzman in 1970, who found role ambiguity to be more highly correlated with stress than role conflict, as did Miles in 1975 and Stout and Posner in 1984. In 1980, Cherniss found role stress to be the best predictor of burnout, with role conflict being the most powerful correlate to decreased feelings of personal accomplishment. Cherniss specifically linked conflict to job tension and psychological withdrawal, the second burnout dimension to be examined in this study. Still more recently, Jayaratne and Chess (1984) found that high levels of role conflict reported by helping professionals were significantly correlated with burnout. These findings were dramatically confirmed by Jackson, et al., (1986) who hypothesized that the high levels of incompatible job demands associated with role conflict would lead to burnout. Their findings showed role conflict to be very strongly linked to emotional

exhaustion as did Leiter and Maslach (1988) and Greenglass and Burke (1988) who found that burned-out women suffered greater stress from role conflict than did men. Continuing this line of inquiry, Pines and Aronson, (1988) also found role conflict to be a leading cause of job turnover, reduced productivity, burnout and "in extreme cases even emotional breakdown and suicide" (1988, p. 126).

Burnout and Role Ambiguity

The term role ambiguity is used in this study to reflect the role-sender's confusion, or indistinct understanding regarding the various dimensions of his or her job role. This confusion may be directed to the nature of the task, how the task is to be accomplished, vagueness regarding whose expectations are to be met and/or an obscure understanding regarding the effect of the outcomes of the role sender's behavior (Kahn et al., 1964).

The role ambiguity deficiency is seen as both an organizational, environmental, and individual issue. The organization may fail to impart sufficient information through position descriptions, training, job performance feedback, job fragmentation, turnover, and lack of supervision, et cetera. The ever-changing extra-organizational environment may also serve to distort information relating to role requirements. The problem may also result from the individual's inability, for any number of reasons, to grasp key concepts relating to role expectations (King & King, 1990).

The relationship between role ambiguity and burnout is assumed to derive from the role sender's confusion and resultant inability to act and make appropriate decisions about important job functions (Schaubroeck et al., 1989). The assumption is that this leads to various enervating influences including: frustration, anxiety, tension, depression, reduced self esteem, psychological withdrawal (Klenke-Hammel &

Mathieu, 1990; Van Sell, Brief & Schuler, 1981), and ultimately, burnout (King & King, 1990). As it stands, researchers have generally found role ambiguity to be even more highly correlated to job stress than role conflict (Fisher & Gitelson, 1983; Holloway & Wallinga, 1990; Miles, 1975; Stout & Posner, 1984). With respect to Maslach's burnout dimensions, Himle et al., (1987, p. 53) found role ambiguity to be a "significant predictor of burnout for men and women, with decreased role ambiguity associated with increased personal accomplishment for women, and with decreased role ambiguity associated with increased depersonalization for men."

There appears to be only one study (Paradis, Miller & Runnion, 1987) directly assessing the relationship between role ambiguity and volunteer stress and burnout using a sample of hospice volunteers--a role not dissimilar to that of the long term care ombudsmen--across several key job dimensions, especially in connection with "patient and family care responsibilities" (p. 170). Researcher's found that fully 35% of those volunteers surveyed felt that they were sometimes unsure of expected role behavior which resulted in confusion that in turn engendered stress. Many complained that they had not been used until some time after their initial training and had, as a consequence, forgotten certain administrative and performance responsibilities. Others weren't clear on who to contact for support. Another source of volunteer role ambiguity specifically identified by Zischka and Jones (1987) as relating to ombudsmen, concerned the volunteer ombudsman's inability to clearly differentiate between the role of a layman and that of a trained paraprofessional. Another plausible source of stress may be logically derived from Zischka's observation that volunteer ombudsman have some difficulty "in understanding the difference between the advocacy and adversarial role" (p. 24). These concerns clearly point to a problem that can only be characterized as "organizational" in nature. It is also germane to note that Steffy and Jones (1990) have found that part -time employees were more subject to role ambiguity than full-time

workers. It might be assumed that this is a result of less actual work (experience) time and greater job-flow discontinuity, but might also reflect less or otherwise different support processes at work which may involve such factors as the organization's lower investment in training for part-time employees, and other forms of organizational inattentiveness as might appertain to a role that in some respects might be valued as something less than that of a full-time employee.

It is important to note that Fisher and Gitelson, (1983) and Klenke-Hamel and Mathieu (1990), cite evidence supporting the notion that role ambiguity is even more susceptible to organizational intervention than role conflict, in part because role ambiguity is more readily influenced by training and supervision. Klenke-Hammel and Mathieu (1990, p. 805) argued that "organizational interventions aimed at reducing role strains are likely to diminish the employee's propensity to leave." They suggest that interventions might better be directed at reducing role ambiguity than role conflict. Recommended interventions included training, organizational development, and job redesign.

Burnout and Job Involvement

Aside from Wallace and Brinkerhoff's (1991) study linking job involvement to the burnout dimension of depersonalization and some indirect evidence weakly linking role stress to job involvement (Brooke, Russel, & Price, 1988), empirical support for the job involvement/burnout connection is not well evidenced in the literature. However the theoretical justification for such a connection has been the object of some thought.

As discussed before, job involvement has been widely defined as the extent to which the individual employee is psychologically engaged in his or her work. Job

involvement is different from organizational commitment inasmuch as the psychological attachment in the latter is directed towards the organization, while the psychological identification associated with job involvement is focused on the immediate job.

Some research suggests that employees who are highly engrossed in their job actually incorporate their work role identity into their concept of self (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965) that is, the work itself would, according to Cherniss, (1980, p. 113), "be intrinsically rewarding and the major source of psychological gratification in their lives." And, while the empirical support for this ego-identification is somewhat shaky (Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977), these work-role-identified employees are also assumed to be more highly motivated by positive performance values (Reitz & Jewell, 1979). This might best be described as a result of a form of intrinsic motivation involving esteem and achievement needs, and perhaps related to the inherent dynamics of the job itself. According to this view, the deepened psychological contract between the worker and the organizational role is conceived of as a result of the employee's perception of an equitable exchange of task input and ego gratification. Clearfield (1977), for example, cites evidence supporting the notion that high work-role-identified employees also enjoy higher self esteem and generally have more positive attitudes towards their work role than those who are less ego identified. By logical parity, then, we might reasonably expect that low-work-role-identified employees, who experienced lower self esteem and exhibited fewer positive job attitudes, might consequentially be more susceptible to reduced personal accomplishment, Maslach's third burnout dimension. In fact, research by LeCoy and Rank using a sample of 106 social workers to assess factors associated with burnout (1987, p. 33) found that "positive professional self-esteem" was inversely related to all three of Maslach's burnout dimensions. These findings seem to, at least indirectly, support the hypothesized negative linkage between job involvement and burnout.

In this general connection, it is interesting to note that Salvador Maddi (cited in Pines & Aronson, 1988) has posited the notion that a state of "existential neurosis," a condition of apathy and alienation akin to burnout, is the result of the individual's disengagement from their environment. Existential neurosis is conceived by Maddi to be the opposite of involvement. And involvement itself may be seen as a continuum from noninvolvement and casual role enactment on through what Sarbin and Allen (1968) term "classical hypnotic role-taking, histrionic neurosis, and ecstasy" and other forms of almost mystical maximum involvement. Cherniss (1980) addressed the closely allied issue of work alienation and explains how existential detachment actually made "work more bearable" by creating an emotional buffer zone between the helping professional and the client.

Further theoretical justification for this job involvement/burnout connection might be discerned in Etzioni's analysis of power (1965) which identifies organizational control structures according to the means by which organizational members are involved in their organizational role. Etzioni's model of normative involvement expressed an intrinsic form of motivation in which job performance is conceived of as a function of work role motivation. Bowditch and Buono (1990, p. 72), suggested that normative involvement and its intrinsic ego-satisfying" incentives were particularly relevant for "not-for-profit and voluntary types of organizations."

In view of these theoretical constructs, it would seem to stand to reason that the measured existence of job involvement would relate negatively to burnout. And while the job involvement/burnout connection apparently lacks direct empirical support, it is also possible that job involvement is a factor predisposing the individual to burnout (Nagy, 1985; Sager, 1991b). This can be seen in view of the normative model of job involvement discussed above, where high reported levels of job involvement would

logically imply a positive adaptation of the individual to his or her job. Burnout, on the other hand, which itself may be more prevalent among previously highly involved and idealistic workers, may be seen as a negative adaptive response to conditions that no longer satisfy the worker's esteem/identity needs. According to this scenario, the once highly committed helping professional, becomes overinvolved and overextended. To protect themselves from the numbness of emotional exhaustion, they begin to limit their involvement, disengage from work and withdraw. According to this now familiar scenario, the once dedicated and involved worker, in self defense, becomes less involved; productivity slumps and absenteeism and turnover, adverse consequences generally supported as correlates to low job involvement, are likely to increase--the classic condition of burnout holds sway (Blau & Boal, 1987). Empirical support for this logical progression is more difficult to come by. Indirect evidence is presented by Cherniss, (1980) who showed that most of the social workers in his study "withdrew from work" (p. 113) and "began to look at non-work activities for psychological fulfillment." However, Wallace and Brinkerhoff's (1991) analysis of the job involvement/depersonalization relationship showed that these variables related positively! High job-involved workers were more burned out than low job-involved workers. The researchers speculated that those who were more psychologically involved with their work were, in fact, employing depersonalization as a coping mechanism to protect from over-involvement with client problems.

Burnout and Organizational Tenure

It is widely held that organizational tenure, the amount of time the organizational participant has been associated with an organization, is linked to organizational loyalty. It is important to point out that organizational tenure differs somewhat from job or

position tenure, which is the amount of time a worker has spent in a given job. While position tenure is less strongly correlated to organizational loyalty, it may also tend to "build an employee's psychological attachment to an organization" (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990, p. 177). Moreover, it seems logical to assume that duration of service is to some extent related to the individual's generally positive experiential association with the organization. Consistent with this view is the well documented fact that turnover is far more prevalent among less tenured workers (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Leglino, 1979). The reasons for this effect lie well beyond the influence of job stress alone, and may embrace such factors as the new employee's relative lack of investment in the organization, the selective and/or involuntary withdrawal of unqualified or otherwise ill-suited employees, as well as other factors that lie well beyond the scope of this study. Suffice it to here to say that the issue of selective withdrawal is very likely to some extent, at least, to be at play in the tenure/burnout connection. It is generally held that people experiencing higher job stress are more likely to disengage from work (Motowidlo, Manning & Packard, 1986).

Some researchers (Johnson & Stone, 1987; LeCoy & Rank, 1987; Nagy & Davis, 1985) have failed to find support for the expected relationship between job tenure and burnout per se. Maslach suggested that burnout, like turnover itself, is more prevalent in the earlier stages of an employee's career (1982). She argued that longer tenured workers were in fact survivors who, while they may have been susceptible to the consequences of job stress, had already successfully adapted to job pressures associated with the burnout phenomenon (Motowidlo, et al., 1986). They had developed skills that would likely have protected them from that pernicious influence in the future. Support for the tenure/burnout relationship was cited by Maslach and Jackson (1981a) and in Beck's (1987, p. 10) study of 1,617 counselors. While it failed to show a statistically significant correlation between duration of service

and burnout, Beck's study showed that "an early increase in burnout levels occurred during the second and third year of work, followed by a fluctuating downward trend and generally lower levels after ten years." Maslach (1982, p. 60) found that reported tendency for social service worker burnout occurred "between one and five years on the job." Consistent with Maslach's findings, Corcoran's (1987) study of female social workers also showed that longer tenured employee's were significantly less likely to experience emotional exhaustion and depersonalization than less experienced employees. Landsbergis (1988) also found that newer employees were likely to experience burnout. Finally, some indirect support for the inverse relationship between job tenure and burnout has been presented by Gillespie and Numerof (1991) whose study of health care professionals showed that burnout was significantly more prevalent among younger and, presumably, less tenured workers.

Burnout and Age

There is a well established negative relationship between age and burnout. This connection is strongly supported in the literature (Maslach, 1978, 1982). The theoretical basis for this connection is reflected in the perception that aged individuals possess a greater accumulation of experience than younger workers. This experience allows them broader perspectives regarding the relative meaning of the discomforting responses to stress in general. Age related empiricism also allows the older individual to draw upon passed coping behaviors to frame and adapt responses to stressful situations newly encountered in both the work and personal environments.

Interestingly, in the gerontological literature, older individuals "are generally seen as less preoccupied with minor stress, perhaps because they had experienced more stress and more severe experiences during their lifetimes" (Fiske & Chiriboga, 1985,

cited in Kimmel, 1990, p. 430). Conversely, younger workers may not have as well developed or sophisticated experiential bases to successfully cope with stressful events and may become more easily overwhelmed by the immediate apprehension of the territory known as burnout.

The issue of selective withdrawal, discussed above, may also be at work with respect to the age variable (Maslach, 1982), because if burnout is more prevalent in the earlier stages of one's career, then less tenured and generally younger workers would be expected to voluntarily withdraw.

The empirical support for the age/burnout connection includes Russell, Altmaier and Van Velzen's (1987) study of burnout among classroom teachers which found that younger teachers reported more stressful events than older teachers. Corcoran's study of 139 female social workers (1987) also showed that older workers were less likely to experience emotional exhaustion and depersonalization than younger workers. Maslach and Jackson (1979) found younger police officers to be more burned-out than older officers. And Landsbergis (1988) found age to be inversely correlated to burnout, with younger employees scoring higher on the MBI's intensity dynamic of the depersonalization subscale. In 1991, Finch and Krantz also found burnout more prevalent among younger workers with older employees showing decreased levels of depersonalization and higher expressions of personal accomplishment.

Burnout and Gender

Some evidence suggested that women are more susceptible to general stress and work related burnout than men (Etzion, 1984; Etzion & Pines, 1986; Hendrix, Cantrell & Steel, 1988; McPherson, 1983; Pines & Aronson, 1988; Pines & Kafry, 1981). However, other research showed that men were generally more burned out than

women (Greenglass, Burke & Ondrack, 1990; Maslach & Jackson, 1985). Recently, Martocchio and O'Leary's (1989) meta-analytic review of gender differences in occupational stress found no support for the time honored notion of heightened female susceptibility to the stress burnout effect, nor did they find any evidence suggesting that men and women experience occupational stress/burnout differentially. However, with respect to this last point, a number of researchers (Burke & Greenglass, 1989b; Greenglass & Burke, 1988; Greenglass , Burke & Ondrack, 1990; Hetherington, Oliver, & Phelps 1989; Himle, et al., 1989; Maslach, 1982; Maslach & Jackson, 1985) have found that the sexes, while not widely differing in their respective experience of the overall work related burnout effect, nevertheless do slightly differ with respect to the dimensionality of the effect (Williams, 1989).

Maslach, for example, (1982) reported that females experienced greater and more intense emotional exhaustion than men. This finding was confirmed by other researchers (Burke & Greenglass, 1989a, 1989b; Heatherington, Oliver & Phelps, 1989), though a 1985 study by Maslach and Jackson supported only that female employees experienced more intense manifestations of emotional exhaustion than males but they experienced these feelings no more frequently than did their male counterparts. The theoretical explanation for the apparently higher incidence of emotional fatigue among women derives from sex role socialization theories which characterize females as being traditionally more emotionally giving than males. Pines and Kafry's (1981) examination of burned-out female human service professionals certainly showed that women embraced a more strongly client centered orientation in an emotionally demanding work environment than males, and some researchers (Burke & Greenglass, 1989b; Williams, 1989) have found that females had higher empathy scores than males and that empathy was strongly correlated with Maslach's emotional exhaustion subscale.

That emotional demands may be greater for female workers may also be a result of the client's expectation to receive greater emotional support from women. This might be the result of a process of expectant reciprocal reinforcement based on socio-normative sex-typed emotional interaction. Whether or not this is the case, the assumed tendency of women to overextend themselves emotionally with clients, coupled with the clients' own possibly heightened anticipation regarding more sensitive emotional support from women, will logically combine to increase females' risk for becoming emotionally overdrawn. Indirect support for this gender difference is presented in a study of sex variances and burnout by Himle et al., (1987, p. 53) which showed that emotionally exhausted females were more prone to be the recipients of "decreased emotional support from supervisors and co-workers. . .," a finding that researchers speculate may be the result of womens' heightened need for emotional investment through the sharing of feelings with others. This tendency towards emotional over involvement does not seem to be the case with men who, it is assumed, bottle up their emotions and generally share less of themselves with others. Whether or not this is the case researchers (Greenglass & Burke, 1988a, 1988b; Greenglass, Burke & Ondrack, 1990; Maslach, 1982; Maslach & Jackson, 1985; Ogus, Greenglass & Burke, 1990; Williams, 1989) have consistently found that men score significantly higher on Maslach's burnout depersonalization subscale than women. This seems to accord with sex-role orientation theories which address men's comparative tendency towards emotional detachment. These theories hold that whether as a result of socialization processes or something more innate, men are more outwardly focused than women. They are less personally oriented. They are more insulated and callous, they are internalizers who tend towards repressing their feelings. Consequently, these traditional views predict that men will also be less likely to extend themselves emotionally. As a result, they may be more prone to depersonalize the resident.

Burnout and Education

The evidence for a strong relationship between burnout and level of educational attainment is presented by Rogers and Dodson (1988) who showed the strong impingement of educational attainment on Maslach's burnout subscale dimensions of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Landsbergis (1988) also reported correlations between higher educational attainment and personal accomplishment. And Maslach (1982), in what is probably still the most influential study of this factor, found that college educated people reported higher rates of burnout across all three dimensions, higher than those with either graduate school experience, some college or no college, though these groups were not immune from the effects of burnout. Finally, it is of some interest to note that Greenglass and Burke (1988) found that more highly educated males experienced greater burnout than less well educated females, but the possible moderating effects of gender make this finding virtually inconsequential.

Interestingly Maslach (1982) pointed out that those with at least some graduate schooling reported particularly high scores on the emotional exhaustion subscale of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), the dominant instrumentation relating to burnout, but not in the depersonalization, personal accomplishment measures. She speculated that the appearance of increased emotional exhaustion among more highly educated workers (e.g. those possessing some postgraduate education) may have been the result of this groups' greater technical competence, educationally derived adaptational capacity and--the case might logically be extended to include--a heightened exposure to ideational and other varied (albeit potentially vicarious) experiences. These may increase the ability to successfully direct, accommodate, cope with, and otherwise control stressful environmental factors. In short, the very highly educated may interact with environment more effectively overall, except in the sphere of personal feelings--

which, as Maslach has observed (1982), is not generally covered in higher education. The fact that those with lower educational attainment tend to report less burnout may be explained by the fact that these workers tend to be employed in simpler, less demanding, and consequentially less stressful jobs. Those with four-year degrees on the other hand, are in the middle, according to Maslach (1982). They are idealistic and involved, with high expectations for success, but less well prepared than their postgraduate trained counterparts for the burden of human service. Their degrees land them the jobs that spell danger for burnout. A recent study by Himle and Jayaratne (1991) is not inconsistent with this perspective. They found that college educated social workers experienced higher depersonalization than graduate educated workers, implying possibly different capacities for handling emotional depletion.

Summary

This review has described a number of theoretically and empirically important factors that impinge on the functional effectiveness of volunteer utilization in a human service organization based upon a "strategic constituencies" perspective. This perspective identified factors contributing to organizational effectiveness based on a model of job characteristics and related variables that impinge the organization's relationship to its participating stakeholders. Job characteristic factors contributing to this study's perceptual model include: Organizational commitment, burnout (as defined by Maslach [1978] at three levels, including emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and a reduced sense of personal accomplishment), role orientation, role conflict, role ambiguity, and job involvement, as well as selected demographic variables including, gender, age, education, and duration of service.

The literature revealed the theoretical importance of identified intervening variables as representing important stakeholder attitudes and allied behavioral components which evidence suggests combine to relate to job-readiness, motivational, performance and other satisfaction/dissatisfaction factors that are crucial to the effective functioning of an organization.

Specifically, the literature indicates that characteristics of organizational commitment and job involvement are intrinsic motivators which are important indicators of stakeholder's respective identification with organizational values and psychological identification with the assigned work role within the larger organizational context. These factors are empirically supported as promoting positive worker outcomes directly relating to organizational effectiveness. Theorists also suggest that these factors correlate negatively with the debilitating effects of job burnout and other role stress variables including role conflict and ambiguity. Evidence is suggestive of this connection, but is also complicated and difficult to interpret.

Theorists have more consistently identified role confusion (role ambiguity) and role conflict (divergent job related expectations) as combining to induce negative organizational consequences while promoting burnout and varied consequential expressions of worker disengagement. The research evidence consistently supports this connection.

The psychological and sociological literature suggests that an individual's dominating (role) orientation towards conflict (collaborative or contest/advocacy) might be rooted in personal cognitive behavior responses and outcomes which are influenced by individual values. The literature supported an argument that alignment or incongruity between personal values and causal organizational values would correlate with organizational outcomes including, respectively, organizational commitment and role stress in the form of burnout. There is a scarcity of empirical data supporting this

argument in general, and virtually nothing examining these factors with respect to a volunteer organization.

Most, but not all, studies support the demographic variables of age and job tenure as being positively associated with organizational commitment and negatively correlated with burnout. While less than conclusive, correlations between the examined demographic factors of gender (in the context of volunteerism) indicate a potential linkage between being female and high volunteer organizational commitment. The evidence also suggested that job tenure would be associated with high organizational commitment and negatively associated with burnout. Evidence also suggested that while the genders tend to experience burnout equally, men would be more likely to depersonalize the client than women, and that women would be more likely to report greater levels of emotional exhaustion. Finally, education tended to be linked to lower levels of organizational commitment and higher levels of burnout in the emotional exhaustion range.

The vast preponderance of literature is directed towards an examination of paid workers and not on volunteers, the focus of this study. Research aimed at shedding light on the nature of the volunteer's organizational experience as related to established models of organizational effectiveness will begin to fill a void in the professional literature.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Study Design

This study necessarily followed an ex post facto design in which the attitudes and perceptions of the identified population of Oregon volunteer certified ombudsmen were collected via structured closed questionnaire scales designed to record the subjects' relative feelings towards: 1) the psychological objects posited as variables in this dissertation (organizational commitment, burnout, role orientation, job involvement, role conflict, and role ambiguity), and 2) to record selected demographic information of importance to this research (age, education, gender, and job tenure).

The ex post facto format was the result of employing a design instrument that assessed and compared volunteer ombudsmen's psychological attitudes at the time the subjects completed the questionnaire. Ombudsmen were not subject to the researcher's immediate influence or manipulation. The multi-structured interview forms systematically captured the desired psychological constructs as they existed in the field and recorded them for parametric analysis of interindividual and inter-variable effects that may have been operating

First, correlation coefficients of the data were examined to determine the strength of the bivariate relationships between the independent and dependent variables to better understand factors contributing to the manifestation of the dependent variables. Although intrinsically interesting and important, these relationship coefficients did not explain how this study's independent variables jointly and simultaneously impacted this

study's dependent variables. Consequently, the strength of the joint relationships was examined through an application of a multiple regression model for examining the relationships between dependent variables (organizational commitment and three aspects of burnout) as they varied with selected independent job characteristic factors (job involvement, role conflict, role ambiguity, and role orientation) and selected demographic factors (age, education, gender, and duration of service). Put simply, this research assessed if and how any or all of the variables were related.

Subjects

This research was conducted on the population of volunteer certified ombudsmen serving Oregon's Office of the Long-Term Care Ombudsman, an independent state agency. In September, 1992, approximately 265 of these volunteer certified ombudsmen were directly involved in community service.

Certified ombudsmen are statutorily responsible for the investigation and resolution of complaints made by or on behalf of Oregon's 26,000 long-term care residents. In addition, volunteer ombudsmen were involved in facility and community education projects, provided therapeutic support to residents, consulted with facility staff, and performed various risk intervention functions. They generally monitored the appropriate responsiveness of other involved agencies and programs, and advocated for improved overall long-term care conditions. The subject population was dispersed among the State's 186 nursing homes, 100 residential care facilities and 2,865 adult foster homes. Fully 80% of the certified ombudsmen were primarily involved in nursing facility service.

The Oregon ombudsman population was selected to achieve high internal validity in order to draw conclusions and explore a predictive construct of relational factors

concerning the effectiveness one of the Nation's leading Ombudsman programs (Department of Health and Human Service Office of the Inspector General, 1991).

Because of the broad differences in structure, function, general orientation and patterns of volunteer participation and utilization as well as other variabilities among the nation's 52 ombudsman programs, generalizability concerning volunteer ombudsmen on a national level was not warranted.

Procedure

The coded survey instrument used in this study represented a group of well-established scales constituting 108 close ended, forced response questions. While this questionnaire is somewhat long, it is within the length cited by Dillman (1979, p. 55) as not having as adverse impact on response rates. To achieve the highest possible reliability, scales were not shortened with the exception of two questions in the Job Involvement index which were inappropriate to non-paid staff. No major survey modifications were necessary beyond the substitution of the term "volunteer work" for paid work when necessary. Negatively phrased items in all but the personal accomplishment scales were recoded so that low scores represented the more positive alternative (for example, lower scores represent lower role conflict and ambiguity, lower emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, but lower scores also represented higher job involvement and organizational commitment). Lower personal accomplishment was not recoded to keep that measure consistent with the other burnout scores of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization so that lower personal accomplishment scores represented a lower expression of personal accomplishment.

Two types of question items were included in the survey instrument. Nominal level forced response items were used to obtain data regarding the demographic

variables addressed in this survey (age, sex, duration of service and level of education). Likert scale questions were used to assess the dependent variables of burnout and organizational commitment and the independent variables of role conflict and ambiguity, job involvement, and to determine respondents' role orientation.

Surveys were distributed through the mail to ombudsman currently on the official September 1992 volunteer roles maintained by the Office of the Long-Term Care Ombudsman.

Potential respondents had earlier received the Agency newsletter in February, 1992, which had alerted volunteers to the importance and purpose of the proposed research study. The importance of responding to the research questionnaire had also been addressed at several statewide meetings where a majority of ombudsmen had been present. Instructions were sent with a cover letter (Appendix A) jointly signed by the Agency Director, and Deputy Director (researcher). The letter, while brief, pointed to the practical intent of the research and emphasized the absolute anonymity of the respondent. It briefly restated the broader goal of the study and explained how the coding process did not infringe upon respondent anonymity. The letter gave details regarding the importance of the research and encouraged and thanked the subjects for their quick and thoughtful response. A self-addressed stamped envelope and an ombudsman marked pencil were included to further encourage prompt attention to the matter. Moreover, in an effort to further encourage an expeditious and high response rate, a follow-up postcard (Appendix B) was sent during the second week to everyone on the mailing list, thanking those who responded and including a friendly and courteous reminder to those who had not (Dillman, 1979). Questionnaires were coded so that follow-up mailings needed only be sent to non-respondents. The identification number was printed on the front right hand corner of the questionnaire where it could be clipped off by the recipient if he or she so chose. This number corresponded to the

number coded by the name of the recipient on the mailing list. At the fourth week a replacement questionnaire was sent to non-respondents only, along with a cover letter containing a special appeal (Appendix C). At the ninth week another strong courteous appeal was sent via certified mail out to any ombudsman not yet responding (Appendix D)

Data were collected in a period of nineteen weeks from September 4 to January 10, 1992. Surveys were received by the researcher at his place of work. A total of 255 responses were received. Non-respondents included 11 volunteers two of whom had not yet been introduced to their facilities and chose not to respond, two died of natural causes, one was murdered, two more said they were too sick to participate, and the remaining five simply failed to respond. Respondents represented 96 % of the entire population. As Dillman has observed (1979, p. 52), it is exceedingly difficult to assess any possible differences between respondents and non-respondents, but a "10 percent increase in response rate decreases by 10 percentage points the range by which the distribution could be affected by refusals if the actual feelings of non-respondents are extreme in either direction."

Measurement

Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment was defined for this study as the extent to which organizational participants identify with and support an organization's goals and values (Porter, et. al., 1974). The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), (Porter et al. ,1974, [Appendix E]) operationalized this definition (Luthans, et. al., 1987). The 15-item OCQ is the instrument most widely used to assess organizational commitment

since its development by researchers in 1974. Descriptively, OCQ items are arranged with a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." Response set bias was reduced by reversing the wording in six items.

The reliability of the OCQ has been extensively studied and reported in the literature with strong confirmatory results (Mathieu & Hamel, 1989; Mowday, et al., 1979). Cronbach alpha coefficients for the OCQ were reported at between .82 and .94 by Porter et al. (1974). Subsequent research has resulted in consistent findings that the true score variance of the OCQ was well within acceptable levels and that error components were small. Mathieu and Hamel for example, reported alpha coefficients to be .89 and .90 for nonprofessionals and professionals respectively (1989). Luthans, et al., reported an alpha coefficient of .90 in their research study (1987) and Daily (1986), reported an Alpha coefficient of .79 for the volunteers in his study. These findings are typical and reflect the comprehensive analysis of the OCQ undertaken by Mowday, et al., (1979). The validity and reliability data for this study of the OCQ was collected from 2,563 employees in a variety of fields (social workers, teachers, utility workers etc.) in nine organizations. The alpha coefficients for the nine work group types were consistently high at between .82 and .93 with a median of .90 (Mowday, et.al., 1979).

Factor analysis and subsequent rotation through a varimax solution showed that the instrument consistently measured a single psychological construct. Test retest reliability measures were reported by researchers at $r = .53$ and $.75$ for the various organizational work groups. This compares favorably with other widely used attitude measures. Convergent validity was strongly suggested by the OCQ's high correlational results with similar attachment/attitude questionnaires, motivational strength surveys (average = $.52$) and by correlations with supervisor ratings of subject employees. Discriminant validation was suggested by returning to the theoretical literature which

linked high organizational commitment inversely to turnover and absenteeism and positively to other "job satisfaction measures." Mowday et al. (1979), found that the OCQ's correlated with employees' intention to remain with the organization and with other job attitude measures including Steers and Brauntein's career satisfaction survey ($r = .39$ and $.40$ for two samples) and scales of the widely used Job Descriptive Index (median correlations $r = .41$). and Lodahl & Kejner's, (1965) job involvement scale (ranging from $r = .30$ to $r = .36$ through four samples [Mowday et al., 1979]). Finally, Mowday and his associates found evidence supporting the OCQ's predictive validity. They cite five studies in which organizational commitment was found to predictively correlate with employee turnover.

Dependent Variable: Burnout

As Handy has observed (1988) the most influential definition of burnout is the one associated with the work of Christine Maslach who characterized burnout as "a syndrome of physical and emotional exhaustion involving the development of negative self concept, negative job attitudes and loss of concern and feelings for clients" (Pines & Maslach, 1978, p. 233, cited in Handy, 1988). Maslach has further defined the different manifestations of these self-concepts, attitudes and values as comprising the constituent elements of burnout identified as emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment. These dimensions represent the three subscales of the widely used Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) an instrument specifically designed for human service workers (Lee & Ashforth, 1990).

Maslach has conceived burnout as manifesting along a continuous range from low to high (Maslach 1981a) as assessed by the magnitude of scores derived from 22 item statements along two dimensions according to a Likert-type seven-point frequency

response scale and a six-point intensity response scale (Appendix E). In this study, the six subscales were reduced to three by multiplying the frequency times intensity scores for the three burnout dimensions of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment.

The emotional exhaustion (nine items) subscale assessed the frequency and intensity of the volunteer ombudsman's relative emotional overextension. The depersonalization subscale (five items) measured the degree to which the ombudsman has "dehumanized" his or her clients in a coping response to personal over-involvement. And the personal accomplishment subscale (eight items) reflected the degree to which the ombudsman has felt generally competent and effective in his or her work. Because of the limited understanding of the relationships among these dimensions, Maslach and Jackson (1981a) have suggested that burnout be assessed according to the separate subscale measures and not by a combined total burnout score. Accordingly, the general manifestation of burnout was determined in this study by high scores on the emotional exhaustion and depersonalization subscales and a low response on the "personal accomplishment measure." The inverse of this pattern suggested low burnout.

Construct validity for the MBI was determined from a 47-item preliminary questionnaire that was administered to a sample of 605 helping professionals who were relatively evenly drawn from the sexes (54% male, and 46% female), largely Caucasian, (89%), married (60%), educated (67% college degreed). Responses were assessed via principal factor analysis and varimax rotation and the 25 best items were retained according the criteria of high item-total correlation, a factor loading of .40 or more on only one of the dimensions, minimal selection of the never response on the Likert scales for frequency and intensity and a wide range of subject answers per item (Maslach & Jackson, 1981b).

The shortened questionnaire was administered to another 420 helping professionals and similar results led the researchers to combine both samples for analysis of instrumentation reliability and validity.

Internal consistency was estimated by Cronbach's alpha coefficients which researchers reported at .83 for frequency and .84 ($r < .001$) for intensity for the combined total scale. Subscale coefficients were reported at .89 for emotional exhaustion, frequency, and .86 for emotional exhaustion, intensity. Somewhat lower (but significant beyond the .001 level) scores were reported for depersonalization which registered a .77 for frequency and .72 for intensity, and for personal accomplishment which showed a .74 for frequency and intensity (Maslach & Jackson, 1981b). More and Laliberte (1984, cited in Koeske & Koeske, 1989) re-examined the construct consistency of the MBI through a factor analysis of 1,281 human service workers and obtained very similar results. Another reliability analysis was undertaken by Corcoran in 1987 who administered the MBI to a sample 300 female social workers and reported "quite acceptable" (p. 60) alpha coefficients of .84 for the depersonalization subscale and .89 for the emotional exhaustion subscale.

Test-retest validity was confirmed by a sample of graduate students ($n = 53$) who took the test separated by a two-to-four week interval. The respective coefficient for emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment were, $r = .82$, $r = .60$ and $r = .80$., which, while moderate, are still significant beyond the .001 range.

The degree to which the MBI effectively reflected respondent behavior (criterion validity) was obtained by a comparative analysis of external measures (Moore 1983). Convergent validity was evidenced by significant correlations between the subjects' MBI results and behavioral ratings from coworkers ($n=40$) regarding the tone of client interaction and from spouses regarding at-home behaviors and from correlations

between the MBI and selected important job characteristics such as caseload size, feedback and time spent directly interacting with the client. Discriminant validity analysis compared MBI scores to selected outcome measures (intention to quit) and other job characteristic-affect measures (job satisfaction), which showed only a moderate negative correlation between the MBI subscales of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and a slightly positive correlation between job-satisfaction and personal accomplishment, explaining only six percent of the variance; this supports the MBI's discriminant validity (Maslach and Jackson 1981a , 1981b).

Independent Variable: Job Involvement

As Knoop has observed, most studies have adopted Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) definition of job involvement which they define as "as the extent to which self-esteem is affected by performance, the importance of work to a person's self-image and psychological identification with one's work,"(cited in Knoop, 1986, p. 451). Most researchers have also used Lodahl and Kejner's 20 item scale (Appendix E), which was developed from a list of 87 items submitted to an expert panel of "11 psychologists, 3 sociologists, and 8 second-year graduate students in a course in human relations" (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965, p. 26). Statistical evaluation of the panels' judgements eliminated another 47 items with high Q values and the forty remaining items were administered to 137 nurses, and factor analyzed and rotated for verimax solution to identify underlying constructs. Five highly correlated factors were thus identified as accounting for 92% of the total job involvement score variance (Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977, p. 270). Another 20 items were eliminated "by considering the item-total correlations, the communality of an item and the factorial clarity of the item." (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965, p. 28). These items were next administered to a group of engineers

whose scores were compared to the re-scored responses of the nurses for a .88 correlation between the original 40 item questionnaire and the reduced (20 item) instrument administered to the engineers. Combined results were re-factor analyzed and again rotated according to a varimax solution. Strong factorial similarities between the nursing and engineer samples led Lodahl & Kejner to conclude that job involvement was probably multidimensional "with adequate but not high reliability" (p. 32). Subsequent studies by Goodman, Furcaron and Rose (cited in Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977) assessed reliability at .83. Mathieu and Kohler (1990) devised a scale using six of Lodahl and Kejner's items administered to 196 bus drivers and obtained an alpha of .77. Lawler, Hackman and Kaufman (1973, cited in Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977) reported an alpha score of .81 which closely approximated the scale coefficient reported by Dailey (1986) of .82. These findings generally supported Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) general conclusion about the adequate nature of the job involvement measurement scale.

Validity was ascertained by an analysis of variance between the nurses the engineers and a group of graduate students who were, as predicted, less involved in their "prospective" career than the nurses and engineers who were already immersed in their chosen fields. Further evidence of instrument validity derived from correlations between job involvement measure and nurses age ($.26 \leq 1$), the Ohio State Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (negative correlation), "initiating structure (positive correlation) and "consideration" (positive correlation). Evidence from the engineers showed that job involvement was correlated with promotional opportunities, perceived expert power of the supervisor, and a positive correlation between job involvement and four of five job satisfaction measures derived from the Job Description Index (JDI). Rabinowitz and Hall, (1977) had noted that job involvement has been fairly consistently associated with higher job satisfaction as might be logically expected.

Independent Variables: Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity

Role conflict and role ambiguity were defined in this study as the extent to which the organizational participant was respectively pressured by divergent role expectations or was confused about expected role behaviors. The most commonly used role conflict and role ambiguity instrument was developed by Rizzo, et al. (1970), whose fourteen item scale was composed of eight negatively worded values assessing role conflict and six positively worded items assessing role ambiguity. The 14 items were arranged with a seven-point Likert type scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree (p. 156).

The current scale was developed by Rizzo et al., (1970) from 30 a priori role stress items evenly divided to assess role conflict and ambiguity. The original questionnaire was administered to 199 managers and craftsmen in a single firm. Image covariance methods of factor analysis and varimax rotation were applied resulting in the identification of two factors accounting for 56% of the common variance. Only items loading $\geq .30$ were retained.

Researchers' identified eight items in factor one as representing role conflict and six items in factor two as being reflective of role confusion or ambiguity. Reliability analyses were performed using "Kuder-Richardson internal consistency coefficients with Spearman Brown corrections" (Rizzo, et al., 1970, p. 161) resulting in reported coefficients of .82 for the role conflict scale and .78 and .81 for the role ambiguity scale. Researchers also reported a .25 correlation between the role conflict and role ambiguity dimensions.

Convergent validity was supported by the scale's expected correlation with other job satisfaction, job security, leader behavior, member anxiety, and intent to leave measures (Rizzo, et al., 1970). Numerous researchers have supported the reliability of

the Rizzo scales. Van Sell et al., (1981) cited Schuler, Aldag, and Brief's (1979) confirmatory psychometric evaluation as supporting the scale's research value. More recently, Netemeyer, Johnston, and Burton (1991, p. 148) subjected the Rizzo et al., model to a structural equations framework analysis by the LISREL statistical package. The Rizzo scale "exceeded some established thresholds of discriminant and convergent validity" and demonstrated greater reliability than alternative models.

Independent Variable: Role Orientation

Role orientation is operationally defined as the ombudsman's personal stance and preferred value set regarding the nature of the ombudsman's purpose and strategy for improving conditions in the nursing facility. A review of the literature shows that ground breaking work by Monk and Kay (1982a, 1982b, 1982c) and subsequent research by Litwin (1982) identified three orientation clusters defined as, a) contest/advocacy orientation, which embraces a watchdog, contest perspective and b), the collaborative/mediator orientation which seeks to secure a win/win solution to perceived problems and c), a third dimension known as the neutral therapeutic dimension which embraces a referral or middle-man helping perspective. This study utilized the scale designed by Monk and Kay (1982a, 1982b, 1982c) as further analyzed and reported by Litwin (1982) in his doctoral research (Appendix E).

The Monk and Kay's role assessment instrument is based on 11 role behavior statements which when rated along a Likert like range from 1 = very accurate to 5 = not very accurate at all, reflected the respondent's perspective regarding the appropriate role behaviors for ombudsmen. The eleven role behaviors were: 1 = improver of conditions, 2 = guide to resources, 3 = middleman (referral agent), 4 = arguer (of the resident's cause), 5 = listener, 6 = translator, 7 = explainer (educator), 8 = observer, 9

= reformer, 10 = watchdog and 11 = provider of emotional support. A panel of 10 expert (Social Work) judges assessed the degree of fit between these 11 ombudsmen role behaviors (Monk & Kaye, 1982b, p. 196) and the three dominating role orientation values discussed above (1, collaborator; 2, advocate; and 3, neutral therapist [one who provides emotional support to residents])). Each of the eleven role behaviors was associated with one the three defining role orientations: items 1 (improver of conditions), 2 (guide to resources), 7 (explainer), and 11 (provider of emotional support), reflected the neutral therapeutic dimension. Items 4 (arguer of residents cause), 8 (observer of staff practices), 9 (reformer), and 10 (watchdog), represented the advocate orientation, and items 3 (middle-man), 5 (listener), and 6 (translator of rules) represented the collaborative orientation.

The Student-Neuman-Keuls procedure was applied to identify "homogeneous subsets for items in the three behavioral dimensions" (Monk & Kaye, 1982c p. 196). Acceptable Cronbach alpha coefficients ranging from .65 to .88 were reported as measures of internal consistency.

Expanding on this model, Litwin (1982) asked his respondents (ombudsmen, $N = 157$) to identify and rank "first, second, and third" the three most important roles from Monk's list of eleven role behaviors. These responses were differentially weighted with respective values of 4, 2 and 1, factor analyzed according to the principle component method and subjected to verimax solution. The results identified two homogeneous subsets accounting for 26.1 percent of total variance. The independence of these two factors was reflected in the low interfactor correlation of -0.09925. Litwin identified factor one as comprising high positive loadings on items 8, 9 and 10 and low loadings on item 5. Thus factor one reflected the contest/collaborative continuum that spanned the contest and collaborative perspectives while factor two was comprised of high positive loadings for items 7 and 11 and high negative loadings on item 3. This

second factor represented a continuum spanning the middleman role to the resident therapeutic role. Litwin identified this second factor as a neutral to therapeutic range. Further analysis showed that the the contest advocacy vs. collaborative perspectives were valid avenues of analysis because the neutral therapeutic dimension was found to exist along the entire contest/collaborative range and was not directly related to either problem resolution orientation. In other words, Litwin found that there were contest oriented neutral therapists and collaborative oriented neutral therapists, but that the more significant and telling differences were between those with contest and collaborative orientations: "The two groups of contestants" (contestant and neutral therapeutic contestants), "tended to be similar and the two groups of collaborators similar," (collaborators and neutral therapeutic collaborators) and contestants and collaborators in general, different one from another" (Litwin, 1982, p. 82). Of greater importance was Litwin's finding that the "neutral therapeutic continuum by itself did not prove to be a useful predictor in subsequent analysis" (p. 82). Wilkes Lambda discriminant analysis between the contest and collaborative orientations revealed a "single canonical function, that correctly predicted group membership for 60.9 percent of the cases (n=92)," (p.85).

Litwin ascertained the validity of the contest/collaborative role orientations by an open ended question asking respondents to identify the "most important objective of the ombudsman." This method was significantly confirmatory as contestant advocates most often chose advocacy oriented objectives while collaborators chose win/win strategy orientations. This relationship was reported as being highly significant ($\chi^2 = 17.38866$, $df = 3$, $p < .0006$).

Data Analysis

Statistical procedures to analyze all data were performed by the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to assess the reliability of the instruments employed in this study, these coefficients were: organizational commitment = .84, role conflict = .83, role ambiguity = .85, job involvement = .79, role orientation/advocacy = .70, role orientation/collaborative = .60, role orientation/neutral therapeutic = .62, burnout/emotional exhaustion = .86, burnout/personal accomplishment = .90, burnout/depersonalization = .42. One should keep in mind that the depersonalization score while lower than previously reported alpha coefficients for this measure, was, nevertheless, generally consistent with the direction of previous research. Depersonalization alpha coefficients were consistently reported to be lower than emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment alpha coefficients. This was in part due to the fewer items of the depersonalization scale. Also item v. ("I feel residents blame me for some of their problems"), appeared to be problematic. Its removal might improve instrument reliability. While these reliability factors ranged from high to relatively low, all were reported as significant beyond the .001 level.

The data were analyzed to determine bivariate correlations between independent variables (job involvement, role conflict and role ambiguity, role orientation) which constituted this study's group of independent job characteristic variables, and selected demographic variables (gender, age, education, and duration of service) and between both classes of these independent variables and this study's dependent variables of burnout in the three dimensions of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment, and organizational commitment.

Descriptive statistics constituted the initial data analysis describing the population and the reported levels of occurrence of the independent and dependent variables. Descriptive statistics were also used to examine important differences between reported levels of education and gender as compared to other variables of the study.

Research Questions

Specific research questions were:

1. Are there significant relationships between organizational commitment and the variables of role orientation, conflict, and ambiguity and job involvement and between the demographic factors of gender, age, education, and length of service?
2. Are there significant relationships between the three dimensions of psychological burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment) and role orientation, conflict and ambiguity, job involvement and with the demographic factors of gender, age, education, and length of service?
3. Are higher levels of burnout, represented by high emotional exhaustion and depersonalization scores and low personal accomplishment scores, associated with reduced organizational commitment?

These research questions were answered by attempting to ascertain the degree or strength of the reported linear relationships between the independent and dependent variables described in research questions 1 and 2 and between organizational commitment and the three levels of burnout addressed in research question 3. As part of the initial data analysis, this study utilized Pearson's product-moment coefficients ("Pearson's *r*" [-1 to 0 to +1]) to identify zero-order correlations between the three aspects of the dependent burnout variable and each of the selected independent variables (except gender and educational levels), and between the dependent variable of organizational commitment and independent variables, excluding gender and educational levels, which were analyzed for differences between means. To minimize the risk of multicollinearity problems, Pearson correlation coefficients above .5 were excluded from the regression equations (Lewis-Beck, 1980 cited in Pratt, Jones-Aust, & Pennington, 1993)

With respect to gender, and educational levels, this study assessed the differences between means through a review of descriptive statistics.

Multiple Regression

For this study, independent variables were regressed in four separate models. The first regression model regressed the dependent variable of organizational commitment on independent variables with correlation coefficients of $p \leq .05$ and with the three dependent burnout subscale variables (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) which were treated as independent variables. Three additional regression models regressed the dependent variables of burnout in its three dimensions on retained independent variables and on organizational commitment which was treated as an independent variable. It is important to note that

since burnout was actually three scales, each scale was treated as an independent variable. Derived multiple correlation coefficients in all models were squared to obtain coefficients of determination indicating the proportion of the percentage of variance in the dependent variables that was explained in each model.

To include gender variables in the regression analyses, t-tests were used to derive gender p values for inclusion in the regressions. Similarly, to include educational group means in the regressions, univariate F-tests (ANOVA) were performed to derive associated p values (Courtney, 1987). For both procedures, the p-level criteria for inclusion was at the .05 level.

CHAPTER 4

REPORT OF FINDINGS

The 254 respondents represented 96% of the population surveyed. The demographic profile of statewide program participants was consistent with national patterns of volunteer participation, and with demographic data presented by the Portland Multnomah Commission on Aging (PMCOA) volunteer ombudsman program research project (1989). This study's data also showed that the majority of ombudsmen (71%) were female ($n = 176$); 73 men reported and five respondents failed to identify their gender.

Ombudsmen volunteers tended to be of retirement age. The mean age for respondents was 63 years old with a standard deviation of 12 years. Male ombudsmen ($M=67$) were older than female ombudsmen ($M = 61$). The youngest ombudsman reporting was 26 years old, the oldest was 85. Eleven respondents did not report their age.

Also consistent with the PMCOA project findings and with the broader volunteer literature, Oregon volunteer ombudsmen reflected higher levels of educational attainment than the general population. Of those responding, 55 % had either a technical/associate, baccalaureate, or advanced degree. Another 30 % had some college or technical education. Collectively, fully 85 % of the surveyed ombudsmen had some college education (Table 1).

While unsurprising, another important finding was the difference between age and levels of education. Older ombudsmen reported less formal education than younger volunteers (Table 2).

The average service duration for survey respondents was 2.48 years ($SD = 2.38$). The longest reported length of service was an individual reporting 12 years. Forty-eight

Table 1

**Highest Level of Education of Oregon Certified
Long-Term Care Ombudsmen**

	Frequency	Percent
Grade School	2	.8
Some High School	7	2.8
High School Diploma	24	9.4
Some College/ Tech	77	30.3
Tech/2-Yr Degree	35	13.8
College Degree	58	22.8
Graduate School	46	18.1
Missing	<u>5</u>	<u>2.0</u>
TOTAL	254	100

respondents (19 %) reported serving less than 1 year. Another 24 % served at least 1 year; 22 % served at least 2 years; eight percent served at least 3 years, and 10 % served at least 4 years. The remaining 17 % served between 5 and 12 years. Fully 88 % of the total respondents served fewer than 5 years.

Descriptive data showing a summary of non-demographic means and standard deviations for male and female respondents, as well as the total population, internal consistency estimates (Cronbach's alpha), and ranges for this study's instruments are shown in Table 3. All displayed variables are continuous.

Table 2

**Mean Age by Highest Level of Education for
Oregon Volunteer Long-Term Care Ombudsman**

Education Level	Mean Age
Grade and Some High School	72
High School Diploma	68
Some College or Technical School	62
Technical or Two-Year Degree	64
College Degree	58
Graduate School	63

The mean scores showed no important differences between male and female respondents with the exceptions of age, personal accomplishment, and depersonalization. The reported incidence of burnout as measured by Maslach's emotional exhaustion and depersonalization subscales was quite low when compared to reported levels of personal accomplishment. These scales were scored from 0 to 30 points for each question item (frequency [scaled 1 through 6], times intensity [scaled 1 through 5]). Mean overall scores for emotional exhaustion and depersonalization appeared remarkably low at 2.4 and .71 respectively, while the overall personal accomplishment mean was significantly higher at 12.3. This suggests that the ombudsmen corps experienced relatively low levels of job related stress and perceived comparatively high levels of job-related personal efficacy.

TABLE 3

Means and Standard Deviations by Gender, Reliability Coefficients and Ranges for Instrument Scale Variables for the Oregon Long-Term Care Volunteer Ombudsman Population

Scale Variables (Range)	Alpha	Male (n =73)		Female (n = 176)		TOTAL (n =249)*	
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Organizational Commitment (1 - 7)	(.84)	2.5	.86	2.4	.94	2.46	.92
Role Conflict (1- 7)	(.83)	4.1	.68	3.9	1.1	3.95	.97
Role Ambiguity (1- 7)	(.85)	2.7	.94	2.7	1.1	2.69	1.1
Job Involvement (1 - 4)	(.79)	2.4	.29	2.4	.35	2.42	.33
Advocate (1 - 5)	(.70)	1.8	.51	1.8	.64	1.8	.64
Collaborative (1 - 5)	(.60)	2.1	.67	1.9	.78	2.0	.75
Neutral Therap. (1 - 5)	(.62)	1.9	.52	1.8	.57	1.9	.56
Emotional Exhaustion (0 - 30)	(.86)	2.3	2.0	2.4	2.5	2.4	2.4
Depersonal.- (0 - 30)	(.42).	.98	1.3	.59	1.1	.71	1.2
Personal Accompl.** (0 - 30)	(.90)	11.1	4.2	13.0	5.4	12.3	5.2

* Five respondents failed to identify their gender.

** Low scores represent the better alternative except with respect to personal accomplishment where a low score represents lower levels of personal accomplishment.

On the seven-point scales measuring organizational commitment, role conflict, and role ambiguity, ombudsmen seemed to be a generally, if not highly, committed group (organizational commitment, $M = 2.46$), who experienced a moderate degree of role conflict (role conflict, $M = 3.95$), and moderately low levels of role confusion or ambiguity (role ambiguity, $M = 2.69$).

Oregon ombudsmen substantially embraced all three role perspectives simultaneously, with males and females showing no important differences in mean scores for the collaborative mode (males: $M = 2.1$; females: $M = 1.9$), the advocacy mode (males: $M = 1.8$; females: $M = 1.8$) and the neutral therapeutic mode (male: $M = 1.9$; female: $M = 1.8$).

Ombudsmen appeared to be only moderately job-involved. They showed an overall mean score of 2.42 (on a four point scale), with men showing no more job-involvement than women (male and female mean = 2.4). In fact, with only two exceptions, all group mean scores appeared very close.

The exceptions included a very small difference between male and female reported levels of depersonalization (males: $M = .98$; females: $M = .59$). This showed only very weak support for earlier research indicating that men tended to report higher levels of depersonalization than women. A somewhat stronger finding was the difference in male and female reported levels of personal accomplishment with females reporting higher levels of personal accomplishment than males (female mean = 13.0; male mean = 11.1).

Relationships Among Study Variables

In the second step of the preliminary data analysis, Pearson correlations were used to examine the relationships among the dependent and independent variables.

While this study was also concerned with how the dependent variables were influenced by the independent variables working together as a group, the detailed examination of the bivariate relationships contributed to the general understanding of the more complex relationships that were subsequently examined via multiple regression analysis. These bivariate results are presented in Table 4. As discussed before, t-tests were used to contrast gender differences between the variables of this study to derive p values for inclusion in the regressions. Similarly, univariate F-tests (ANOVA) were performed between reported levels of education and the other variables in this study to derive p values for inclusion in the regressions. T-tests were performed to assess gender differences for all variables and to derive p values for inclusion in the regressions.

In the third step of the data analysis, variables with a p value of $\leq .05$, were included in this study's four regression models with organizational commitment and the three aspects of burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment). This was done to determine the joint, simultaneous effects of all variables on organizational commitment and burnout.

Research Question 1: Organizational Commitment

Zero order correlations between all variables and mean scores for all variables by gender and education were calculated in relationship to research question number one: Are there relevant relationships between organizational commitment and the variables of role orientation, role conflict, role ambiguity, job involvement, and burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) and between organizational commitment and the demographic factors of gender, age, education, and length of service. Hypotheses 1-5 predicted relationships relevant to research question 1.

TABLE 4

Correlational Values Between Continuous Variables of Volunteer Long-Term Care Ombudsmen's Work Perceptions, Age, and Years of Service

	Role Conflict	Role Ambiguity	Job Involvement	Advocate Orientation	Collaborative	Neutral Therapeutic	Emotional Exhaustion	Depersonalization	Personal Accomplishment	Age	Years of Service
Organizational Commitment	.105*	.375**	.497**	.312**	.208**	.297**	.157**	.110*	-.41**	-.11*	NS
Role Conflict		.339*	NS	.189*	.135*	.118*	.237**	NS	-.13*	NS	NS
Role Ambiguity			.317**	.297**	.205**	.258**	.180*	NS	-.31**	NS	-.19**
Job Involvement				.306**	.227**	.355**	.122*	NS	-.50*	NS	NS
Advocate Orientation					.308**	.423**	NS	NS	-.26**	NS	NS
Collaborative						.615**	NS	NS	-.24**	NS	-.10
Neutral Therapeutic							NS	NS	.36	NS	-.12
Emotional Exhaustion								.422**	NS	NS	.110*
Depersonalization									-.11*	NS	.168**
Personal Accomplishment										-.25**	NS
Age											.266**

* $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$; NS = not significant

Hypotheses for Research Question 1

- Hypothesis 1:** Higher levels of organizational commitment will be correlated with lower levels of role conflict and role ambiguity.
- Hypothesis 2:** Organizational commitment will be positively correlated with job involvement.
- Hypothesis 3:** Organizational commitment will be more highly associated with measures of the advocacy role orientation than levels of collaborative role orientation.
- Hypothesis 4:** Higher levels of organizational commitment will be linked to lower levels of the burnout/emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and to higher levels of personal accomplishment.
- Hypothesis 5:** Higher levels of organizational commitment will be associated with greater age, lower educational attainment and longer job tenure.

The above hypotheses provide the basis for the correlational analysis of this study.

Organizational commitment. In general, a review of the results showed that aside from the demographic variables of gender, education and years of service, significant and practically important correlations existed between organizational commitment and selected independent variables.

Specifically, lower role conflict was significantly associated with higher organizational commitment ($r = .105, p \leq .05$). Even more important, however, was the association between lower role ambiguity and higher organizational commitment ($r = .375, p \leq .01$). These data supported research hypothesis 1 which predicted a relationship between higher organizational commitment and lower role stress as measured by role conflict and ambiguity.

One of this study's most important findings was the strong association between higher organizational commitment and higher job involvement ($r = .497, p \leq .01$) in support of research hypothesis 2. This relatively strong relationship showed a common variance of .247, predicting approximately 25% of the total variance for organizational commitment.

All three role orientations were significantly and positively related to organizational commitment. Specifically, higher organizational commitment was associated with higher advocacy ($r = .312, p \leq .01$), higher therapeutic ($r = .297, p \leq .01$), and higher collaborative ($r = .208, p \leq .01$) role orientations. But the hypothesized dominant strength of the advocacy orientation (hypothesis 3) was only very weakly supported by the data. In effect, there appeared to be no important practical differences in the strength of associations between the three role orientations and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 4 stated that higher levels of organizational commitment would be linked to lower levels of burnout/emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and to higher levels of personal accomplishment. The data were affirming. Emotional exhaustion ($r = .157, p \leq .01$) and depersonalization ($r = .110, p \leq .05$) were, in fact, correlated with lower reported levels of organizational commitment. Personal accomplishment was, as expected, strongly, significantly, and negatively associated with organizational commitment ($[r = -.41, p \leq .01]$; it is important to keep in mind

that personal accomplishment was coded such that a higher score reflected higher accomplishment. This is contrary to the other scoring, where a lower score is associated with the better, or more positive alternative. Thus, a negative correlation indicated that higher personal accomplishment was associated with higher organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 5 postulated that higher organizational commitment would be associated with greater age, lower educational attainment, and longer job tenure. This hypothesis was only partly supported by the data. Of the demographic variables examined, only age was significantly correlated with organizational commitment ($r = -.11$, $p \leq .05$), increasing age was associated with higher levels of organizational commitment.

An examination of organizational commitment by gender and education indicated no significant differences in organizational commitment between men and women or for different education levels.

Research Question # 2: Relationships with Burnout

Research question 2 examined relationships between the three dimensions of psychological burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) and role orientation, conflict and ambiguity and job involvement, and the demographic factors of gender, age, education and duration of service.

Burnout Hypotheses

Hypotheses 6-10 are subordinate to research question 2.

- Hypothesis 6:** Higher levels of depersonalization and emotional exhaustion and lower levels of personal accomplishment will be correlated with higher levels of role conflict and role ambiguity.
- Hypothesis 7:** The greater the level of job involvement, the lower the levels of depersonalization and emotional exhaustion, and the higher the level of personal accomplishment.
- Hypothesis 8:** Lower burnout in the dimensions of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization will be associated with higher levels of education and longer terms of service.
- Hypothesis 9:** There will be a negative association between lower levels of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment and older age.
- Hypothesis 10:** Males will exhibit higher levels of depersonalization than females, while females will show higher levels of emotional exhaustion.

Emotional exhaustion. As expected, depersonalization was strongly and positively related to emotional exhaustion ($r = .422, p \leq .01$). Role conflict ($r = .237, p \leq .01$) and role ambiguity ($r = .180, p \leq .01$) were also significantly related to emotional exhaustion. The latter correlations were in line with research hypothesis 6 which anticipated a positive association between high depersonalization and emotional exhaustion with role conflict and role ambiguity.

Hypothesis 7 posited that greater levels of job involvement would be associated with lower levels of emotional exhaustion. The data confirmed that ombudsmen who

were more job involved reported lower levels of emotional exhaustion ($r = .122, p \leq .05$).

Less service time was also associated with lower levels of emotional exhaustion ($r = .110, p \leq .05$). This ran counter to research hypothesis 8, which predicted an inverse relationship between emotional exhaustion and length of service. Moreover, no relationship was found to exist between educational attainment and emotional exhaustion as had been predicted in hypothesis 8. However, there was an association between lower organizational commitment and higher emotional exhaustion supporting research hypothesis 4. That is, as ombudsmen emotional exhaustion increased, loyalty to the organization decreased.

Emotional exhaustion was not correlated with education (hypothesis 8), or age (hypothesis 9). Further, emotional exhaustion did not vary by gender (hypothesis, 10).

Depersonalization. Significant correlations with the depersonalization subscale included emotional exhaustion (discussed above) and organizational commitment ($r = .110, p \leq .05$); lower organizational commitment was associated with lower depersonalization in support of hypothesis 4.

Personal accomplishment was negatively associated with depersonalization ($r = -.11, p \leq .05$). That is, higher personal accomplishment was correlated with lower depersonalization.

There was an association between years of service and depersonalization ($r = .168, p \leq .01$) such that fewer years of service were correlated with lower depersonalization. That is, less experienced ombudsmen reported lower depersonalization. This finding contradicted hypothesis 8 which anticipated a negative correlation between depersonalization and service duration. No other correlations

proved significant, nor did the data support hypothesis 8 which had predicted an inverse correlation between education and depersonalization.

An examination of mean scores for depersonalization by gender showed men reporting higher levels of depersonalization than women. However, this relationship was exceedingly small and provided only very tentative support for research hypothesis 10. It should not be considered important.

Finally, an examination of depersonalization by education indicated no significant differences in depersonalization for educational levels.

Personal accomplishment. In interpreting these findings, it is critical to remember that higher scores on personal accomplishment indicate a greater sense of accomplishment. In contrast, for role ambiguity, for example, lower scores indicate lower role ambiguity. With all scores except personal accomplishment, the lower value represents the more desirable alternative.

Pearson correlations for the personal accomplishment subscale were generally strong and highly significant. Hypothesis 6 anticipated that as role ambiguity decreased personal accomplishment would increase. This was confirmed ($r = -.31, p \leq .01$). Also confirmed was the predicted negative correlation between personal accomplishment and role conflict ($r = -.13, \leq .05$). There were also strong, expected, negative correlations between personal accomplishment and job involvement ($r = -.50, p \leq .01$), and between personal accomplishment and organizational commitment ($r = -.41, p \leq .01$), such that as volunteer personal accomplishment increased so did volunteer commitment and involvement. These findings confirmed hypothesis 4 and 7 respectively.

Surprisingly, however, higher age was associated with lower levels of personal accomplishment ($r = -.25$, $p \leq .01$). That is, older ombudsmen felt less personally accomplished than younger ombudsmen, in contrast to hypothesis 9.

All three role orientations were negatively correlated with personal accomplishment at the $p \leq .01$ level (advocate, $r = -.26$, therapeutic, $r = -.36$, and collaborative, $r = -.24$).

A review of personal accomplishment by gender indicated a modest difference between men and women, with women reporting higher levels of personal accomplishment. A review of education mean group scores indicated no significant differences in personal accomplishment by educational levels.

Research Question # 3: Burnout and Organizational Commitment

Finally, research question number 3 examined the relationship between higher levels of burnout (represented by higher emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and lower personal accomplishment) and reduced organizational commitment. As discussed before, Pearson correlations were confirmatory. Higher levels of organizational commitment were related to lower levels of emotional exhaustion ($r = .157$, $p \leq .01$), and depersonalization ($r = .110$, $p \leq .05$), and with higher personal accomplishment ($r = -.41$, $p \leq .01$; $r^2 = .17$).

Multiple Regression

Although revealing and important in their own right, the preceding bivariate relationships did not clarify how this study's independent variables acted together in predicting, or impinging on, this study's dependent variables. To consider the joint,

simultaneous effect of the independent variables on each dependent variable required the application of multiple regression analysis. But regression analyses are not without potential pitfalls.

A major concern with regressions is the problem of multicollinearity. However, since none of the significant variables to be included in this study's regressions exceeded the $p \leq .05$ level, the risk of multicollinearity for this research was deemed negligible. The variables retained for each of this study's four regression models are displayed in Table 5.

Regression: Organizational Commitment

Independent variables with a p value of $\leq .05$, were included in a regression model with the dependent variable of organizational commitment to determine the joint, simultaneous effect of the independent variables on organizational commitment.

First, organizational commitment was regressed on age, job involvement, role conflict, role ambiguity, the collaborative orientation, the advocate orientation, the neutral therapeutic orientation; emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment (Table 6).

Overall, the joint effects of this study's independent variables on organizational commitment were significant. Regressing organizational commitment on this model's 10 predictor variables resulted in a significant overall equation ($F[10, 213] = 11.26, p \leq .0001; R^2 = .35$), explaining 35% of the variance in organizational commitment. Only four of the variables were significant: job involvement, age, role ambiguity, and personal accomplishment (Table 6). Three of these relationships were positive and one (personal accomplishment), was negative. It is important to remember that the negative direction of this personal accomplishment relationship indicated that respondents who

TABLE 5

Associations Between Oregon Volunteer Long-Term Care Ombudsman
Dependent and Independent Variables Included in Regression Models by
Dependent Variable***

Organizational Commitment

Role Conflict	Role Ambiguity	Job Involv.	Advocate	Collaborative	Neutral Therapeutic	Emotional Eshaution	Depersonalization	Personal Accomp.	Age
.105	.375	.497	.312	.208	.297	.157	.110	-.41	-.11
*	**	**	**	**	**	**	*	**	*

Emotional Exhaustion

Role Conflict	Role Ambiguity	Job Involv.	Organizational Commitment	Depersonalization	Years of Service
.237	.180	.122	.157	.422	.110
**	**	*	**	**	*

Depersonalization

Organization Commitment	Emotional Exhaustion	Personal Accomp.	Years of Service	Gender
.110	.422	-.11	.168	.018
*	**	**	**	*

Personal Accomplishment

Role Conflict	Role Ambiguity	Job Involv.	Advocate	Collaborative	Neutral Therapeutic	Depersonalization	Organizational Commitment	Age	Gender
-.13	-.31	-.50	-.26	-.24	-.36	-.11	-.41	-.25	-.012
*	**	**	**	**	**	**	*	**	*

* p < .05

** p < .01

*** Tabular values represent correlation coefficients with all independent variables except for gender where p-value is reported.

reported higher levels of personal accomplishment showed greater organizational bonding.

Regression: Burnout

Research question 2 examined relationships between the three dimensions of psychological burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) role orientation, role conflict, role ambiguity, job involvement, and the demographic factors of gender, age, education, and duration of service. Each of burnout's three dimensions were included in a separate regression model.

Emotional Exhaustion

Five independent variables were entered into the regression for emotional exhaustion: years of service, role conflict, job involvement, role ambiguity, and organizational commitment. Results of this multiple regression analysis indicated a significant overall equation ($F[5, 237] = 5.60, p \leq .0001; R^2 = .11$) in which the independent variables accounted for approximately 11% of the total explained variance for emotional exhaustion; years of service and role conflict were significantly and positively related to higher emotional exhaustion (Table 7).

Depersonalization

Three independent variables were entered into the regression model for depersonalization: years of service, role conflict, and gender. Once again, multiple

TABLE 6

**Regression Results Showing Relationships of Independent Variables to
Volunteer Long-Term Care Ombudsman Organizational Commitment**

Independent Variables	<i>Beta</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>p-value</i>
Age	-.1497	4.64200E-03	.0157*
Job Involvement	.29261	.18686	.0000**
Role Conflict	7.4618 E-03	.05816	.9056
Depersonalization	.05775	.04660	.3483
Collaborative	-.05266	.08610	.4616
Advocacy	.10564	.09378	.1001
Emotional Exhaust.	.03905	.02394	.5402
Role Ambiguity	.16805	.05517	.0108*
Personal Accompl.	-.19005	.01239	.0077**
Neutral Therapeutic	.05090	.12689	.5208
<hr/>			
R Square	.34579		
Adjusted R Square:	.31508		

* $p \leq .05$.

** $p \leq .01$.

regression results indicated a significant overall equation ($F[3,236] = 5.28, p \leq .00; R^2 = .063$) explaining about six percent of the total variance in depersonalization. Years of service and being male were positively associated with depersonalization (Table 8). However, because of trivial real differences in depersonalization between males ($M = .96$) and females ($M = .58$) on a 30 point scale, this finding was deemed unimportant.

TABLE 7

Regression Results Showing Relationships of Independent Variables to Volunteer Long-Term Care Ombudsman Emotional Exhaustion

Independent Variables	<i>Beta</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>p-value</i>
Years of Service	.15280	.06230	.0152*
Job Involvement	.08182	.52253	.2601
Role Conflict	.21869	.16586	.0012**
Role Ambiguity	.07682	.16491	.2886
Organizational Commitment	.08071	.19389	.2687

R Square .10567

Adjusted
R Square: .08681

* $p \leq .05$.

** $p \leq .01$.

TABLE 8

**Regression Results Showing Relationships of Independent Variables to
Volunteer Long-Term Care Ombudsman Depersonalization**

Independent Variables	<i>Beta</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>p-value</i>
Years of Service	.17750	.03078	.0054**
Gender	.14651	.16348	.0212*
Organizational Commitment	.10002	.08325	.1158
<hr/>			
R Square	.06295		
Adjusted R Square:	.05104		

* $p \leq .05$.

** $p \leq .01$.

Personal Accomplishment

Nine variables were entered into the regression model for personal accomplishment: age, gender; role orientations (advocate, collaborative, and neutral therapeutic); role conflict, role ambiguity, job involvement, and organizational commitment. Once again, the overall regression analysis resulted in a significant equation ($F[9, 213] = 16.93, p \leq .00; R^2 = .42$) explaining 42% of the variance in personal accomplishment. Age, job involvement, role ambiguity, and organizational commitment were negatively related to personal accomplishment (Table 9).

TABLE 9

**Regression Results Showing Relationships of Independent Variables to
Volunteer Long-Term Care Ombudsman Personal Accomplishment**

Independent Variables	<i>Beta</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>p-value</i>
Gender	-.10003	.61092	.0695
Advocate	-.01382	.50437	.8200
Age	-.27064	.02404	.0000**
Role Conflict	-.05358	.30568	.3588
Job involvement	-.33940	.98263	.0000**
Collaborative	-.07784	.46280	.2500
Role Ambiguity	-.12862	.29918	.0407*
Organizational Comm.	-.14800	.36375	.0219*
Neutral Therap.	-.09255	.67204	.2123
<hr/>			
R Square	.41705		
Adjusted R Square:	.39242		

* $p \leq .05$.

** $p \leq .01$.

The negative direction of the relationships indicated that the more ombudsmen experienced higher job involvement (lower score), lower role ambiguity (lower score), and higher organizational commitment (lower score), the more they felt personally

accomplished (higher score). Younger ombudsmen (lower age score) experienced higher personal accomplishment (higher personal accomplishment score).

The practical implications cannot be fully understood without examining these findings in light of the theory and evidence presented in Chapter II. The following Chapter (5) will discuss this study's findings exploring the possible reasons for the relationships identified herein. While the exploration of the nature of these found relationships might seem to imply a causal bond, any such cause and effect relationship is strictly beyond the proof evinced in this study.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study examined a set of factors which were expected to impinge upon organizational commitment and psychological burnout among 265 volunteer certified ombudsmen directly involved in long-term care complaint investigation and problem resolution. These dependent variables were examined in relationship to selected job characteristic and demographic variables via correlations and a multiple regression model. Independent variables were selected from the literature on the basis of their theoretical and empirical relationship to organizational commitment and burnout. Independent variables were role orientation (conflict, neutral therapeutic and collaborative), role conflict, role ambiguity, and job involvement, and the demographic variables of age, gender, length of service, and education. This study sought answers in two directions. First, to the question of how selected variables related to the motivation and dedication of effective organizational membership; and second, how these variables discouraged effective volunteer commitment. A model of these factors in the context of this study's bi-directional focus (e.g., positive and negative participant outcomes) is shown in Figure 1.

The study utilized the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Porter et al., 1974); The Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach, 1981a); Lodahl and Kejner's Job Involvement Questionnaire (1965); Rizzo's et al., Role Conflict and Ambiguity scale (1970), and Litwin's Ombudsman Role Orientation scale (1982).

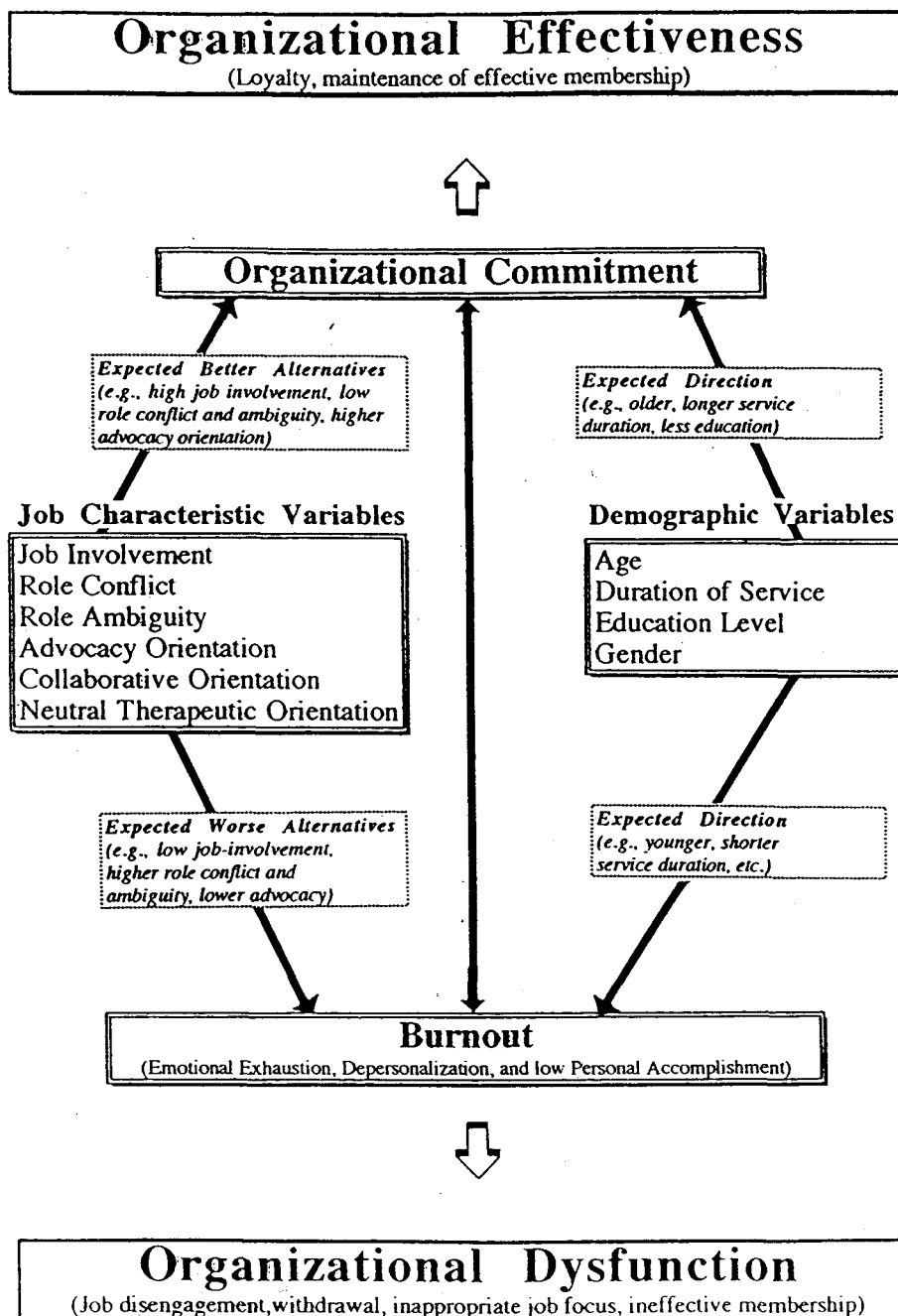


Figure 1. A directional model of factors influencing organizational commitment and burnout.

Research Problem

Specific research questions were:

1. Are there relevant relationships between organizational commitment and the variables of role orientation, conflict, and ambiguity and job involvement and between the demographic factors of gender, age, education, and length of service?
2. Are there relevant relationships between the three dimensions of psychological burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) and role orientation, conflict and ambiguity, job involvement and with the demographic factors of gender, age, education, and length of service?
3. Are higher levels of burnout, represented by high emotional exhaustion and depersonalization scores and low personal accomplishment scores associated with reduced organizational commitment?

The following research hypotheses served as a general frame of reference for the analysis of the data collected in this study:

- Hypothesis 1:** Higher levels of organizational commitment will be associated with lower levels of role conflict and role ambiguity.
- Hypothesis 2:** Organizational commitment will be positively correlated with job involvement.

- Hypothesis 3:** Organizational commitment will be more highly associated with measures of the advocacy role orientation than levels of collaborative role orientation.
- Hypothesis 4:** Higher levels of organizational commitment will be linked to lower levels of burnout/emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and to higher levels of personal accomplishment.
- Hypothesis 5:** Higher levels of organizational commitment will be associated with greater age, lower educational attainment and longer job tenure.
- Hypothesis 6:** Higher levels of depersonalization and emotional exhaustion and lower levels of personal accomplishment will be associated with higher levels of role conflict and role ambiguity.
- Hypothesis 7:** The greater the level of job involvement, the lower the levels of depersonalization and emotional exhaustion, and the higher the level of personal accomplishment.
- Hypothesis 8:** Lower burnout in the dimensions of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization will be associated with higher levels of education and longer terms of service.
- Hypothesis 9:** There will be a negative association between lower levels of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment and older age.
- Hypothesis 10:** Males will exhibit higher levels of depersonalization than females, while females will show higher levels of emotional exhaustion.

Summary of the Population and Methodology

The population included 254 volunteer long-term care ombudsmen representing 96% of the volunteers directly involved in long-term care advocacy during the survey period.

Descriptive data showed that ombudsmen were 71% female, generally of retirement age, and more highly educated than the general populace. Males were, on an average, six years older than females. Otherwise, there appeared to be no important differences in male and female job perceptions except in the area of personal accomplishment, where on a 30-point scale, women scored, on an average, two-points higher than males.

This study examined the correlation coefficients of the variables to determine the strength of the bivariate relationships between dependent and independent variables. Subsequent regression analyses examined how the independent variables worked together as a group to influence the dependent variables of organizational commitment and burnout in its three dimensions (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment).

This study's findings, with respect to the hypotheses will be discussed here with a focus on implications for volunteerism in general and volunteer ombudsmen program effectiveness in particular.

Factors Most Strongly Influencing Organizational Commitment

Pearson correlations strongly supported significant relationships between organizational commitment and all of this study's independent variables except the three demographic factors of gender, educational attainment and years of service. A

comparison of the different correlational values between the independent variables and organizational commitment is represented in Figure 2.

Perhaps the most striking finding at this stage in the analysis was the strong relationship between job involvement and organizational commitment, closely followed by the association of personal accomplishment and organizational commitment. However, with the exception of these relatively strong associations, remaining bivariate correlations were generally small but statistically significant to highly significant. Moreover, with these same exceptions, findings generally supported the directions stated in this study's research hypotheses. Finally, with the exceptions of age and personal accomplishment, all correlations were positive. (It is important to point out that low scores generally represent the better alternative. Thus, a statistically positive correlation between organizational commitment and emotional exhaustion, for example, would mean that a low emotional exhaustion score, representing low levels of emotional exhaustion, is associated with a low organization commitment score, which represents the more desirable alternative of high organizational commitment.)

Specifically, as indicated above, bivariate correlations largely supported the hypotheses about the expected influence of selected independent variables on organizational commitment. Zero order correlations revealed that job involvement, role ambiguity, personal accomplishment, emotional exhaustion and all three ombudsman role orientations were most strongly associated with organizational commitment. However, in estimating the separate predictive values of these bivariate relationships (by squaring the Pearson coefficients), measures of common variance revealed that only job involvement ($r\text{-squared} = .25$), personal accomplishment ($r\text{-squared} = .17$), role ambiguity ($r\text{-squared} = .14$), and the advocacy role orientation ($r\text{-squared} = .10$) explained 10 % or more of the variance in organizational commitment. In other words, taken singly, job involvement was shown to predict a full 25 % of the organizational

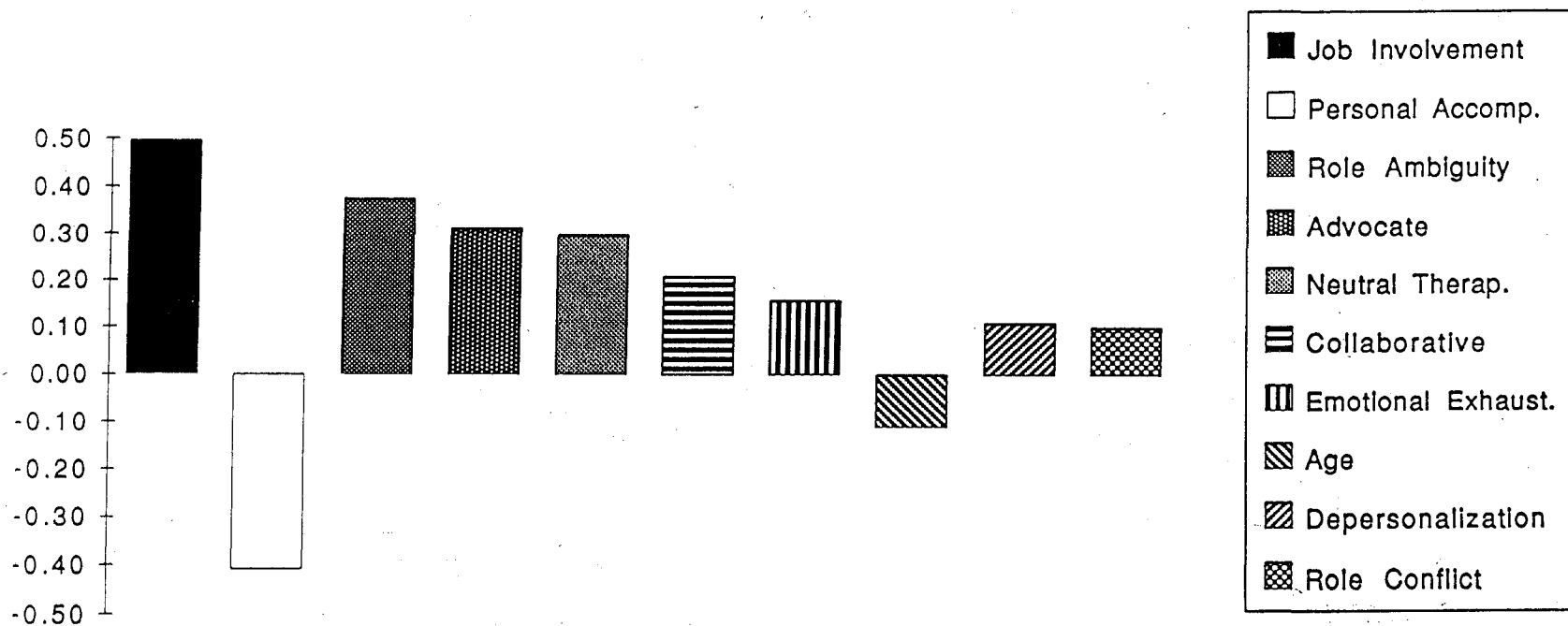


Figure 2. Strength of correlations between independent variables and organizational commitment.

commitment variance; personal accomplishment, in isolation, predicted 17 % of the variance in organizational commitment; role ambiguity explained 14 %, and the advocacy orientation explained about 10 % of the organizational commitment variance.

Role conflict, age and depersonalization and the neutral therapeutic and collaborative role orientations showed the weakest though still statistically significant correlations, each separately predicting less than 10 % of the organizational commitment variance.

However since none of these factors work singly, a better understanding of how this study's independent variables influence organizational commitment was obtained by combining them in a multiple regression analysis. Overall, the results of the organizational commitment regression were significant and explained about 35% of the variance in organizational commitment. Thus the multiple regression supported the selected variables as important correlates of organizational commitment when working together. Specifically, job involvement, age, role ambiguity, and personal accomplishment proved significant when working together with other factors.

These general correlational data will now be discussed in view of this study's hypotheses relating to research question 1.

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 predicted that higher levels of organizational commitment would be associated with lower levels of role conflict and role ambiguity. Pearson correlations were confirming, though the relationship of role ambiguity was stronger and more highly significant than that of role conflict. First, as predicted, zero-order correlations showed that ombudsmen who experienced greater conflicting role expectations and more relative confusion about their organizational role also tended to

show a diminished sense of support for the organization's goals and values. That is to say, they were less organizationally committed. These results are consistent with previous studies which suggest that role conflict and ambiguity are consistently and negatively related to organizational commitment (Brooke, Russel & Price 1988; Fisher & Gitelson, 1983; Jackson & Schuler, 1985, [cited in King & King 1990]; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Miles, 1975; Mowday et al., 1982, [cited in Mathieu & Zajac, 1990]; Reicher, 1986; Van Sell, et al., 1981)

Second, multiple regression analysis also revealed that when working together with other factors, the influence of role conflict was less influential than role ambiguity. While causal statements are unwarranted, these findings do suggest that ombudsmen who have a clear understanding of their organizational role and show little confusion regarding performance expectations and job responsibilities also show stronger ties to the organization and are generally more supportive of the organization's goals and values.

One possible explanation for the diminished impact of role conflict on ombudsman organizational commitment is the greater likelihood of external causality for this variable. It is important to point out that ombudsmen report far more role conflict than role ambiguity (see Table 2). In fact, during their initial training, ombudsmen are warned that they will be routinely working in an environment where much of what they do will be questioned by care providers (Meredith Cote, personal communication, March 21, 1993). This external source of role tension is addressed in the program's initial training program. Thus, while both role conflict and ambiguity may be externally triggered, it is more likely that the ombudsman will encounter divergent role expectations from non-program, or external sources as opposed to internal (organizational) sources. Speculatively, during their initial training, volunteer ombudsman are prepared for the likelihood that other role-holders will have different

expectations about what position the ombudsman should take. Because they are prepared for this externally based, inter-personal role conflict, any adverse consequences for ombudsmen organizational commitment may be moderated. Moreover, the external source of role conflict may also tend to result in an external projection of any consequent role stress dissatisfaction. This external projection of dissatisfaction would logically be less likely to effect the ombudsman's support of internal-organization goals and values.

A second possible explanation for the dominant influence of role ambiguity is that confusion and ambiguity about role performance expectations more directly relates to the individual's actual understanding of his or her own role in the organization. This confusion may result in frustration that is either unfocused with respect to source, or it may even be focused internally. The ombudsman, for example, may feel untrained and otherwise ill-prepared for the job. She may even feel let down by the program. This frustration might tend to result in a change of values or beliefs about the program, a personal outcome that would logically bring about reduced organizational loyalty.

A third explanation might be that role ambiguity relates quite directly to a fundamental confusion about the organization's guiding values and goals. Any confusion here would logically and quite simply result in diminished support for the organizational goals and values that are not clearly understood or internalized in the first place.

Finally, it is important to note that this study's findings supported Miles' observation (1975 p. 338), "that the relationships between role ambiguity and personal outcomes are generally stronger than those which obtain from role conflict" In other words, as some research suggests ([e.g., Kahn et al., 1964; Miles, 1974; Rizzo et al., 1970], cited in Miles 1975) role ambiguity may be an inherently more important influence on personal factors, like organizational loyalty, than role conflict. In view of

this body of evidence, it is not surprising, then, that organizational commitment, described by Isley (1990, p. 34) as "a deeper feeling . . . relating to the individual's core values," is more directly influenced by a basic pervasive lack of role clarity than the situational tension that results from externally caused divergent role expectations (e.g., role conflict).

In sum, while causal statements were unwarranted, these findings did suggest that ombudsmen who had a clear understanding of their organizational role and showed little confusion regarding performance expectations and job responsibilities also showed stronger ties to the organization and generally were more supportive of the organization's goals and values.

The implications of this finding for the volunteer program coordinator are transparent and need no great elaboration. Training is an absolutely essential ingredient necessary to minimize the dysfunctional aspects of role ambiguity. Volunteer coordinators must impart clear role objectives to program role holders as an antidote to dissatisfaction and other counter-motivational influences that can seriously hamstring organizational effectiveness. As this study shows, ombudsmen with clear role conceptions are more likely to be committed to the organization and, thus more supportive of organizational goals and more likely to maintain effective organizational membership.

Hypothesis 2

The second hypotheses predicted that organizational commitment would be positively correlated with job involvement. Zero-order correlations presented in Table 5 showed strong support for this hypothesis. Taken singly, job involvement explained 25 % of the organizational commitment variance.

This result supported Blau and Boal's (1987, p. 289), Mathieu & Kohler's, (1990) and Mathieu & Zajac's (1990) contention that organizational commitment and job involvement "function as interactive orientations." This might be explained as follows. Job-involved ombudsmen were more ego identified with their volunteer jobs. That is, their work experience as volunteer ombudsmen had to some extent become an important part of their lives. This psychological identification with the job's direct service mission has important implications for the role-holder's self concept (Gechman & Wiener, 1975) because they have internalized the social and moral aspects of their service role (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965). Being an ombudsman has become a factor contributing to their self-image. Consequently, the job-involved ombudsman cares more deeply about his or her job than the non-job involved ombudsman. While this identification with the job is not the same thing as identification with the parent organization, the job-involved ombudsman who is egoistically and self-efficaciously performing a job designed to support organizational goals, would also be more likely supportive of the organization's defining goals and values.

Previous research on the association between job involvement and organizational commitment has been equivocal. Dailey (1986), for example, found no association between the two factors. A possible explanation for this may be that a correlation between job involvement and organizational commitment might relate to the degree of congruity between the respective variable's organizational anchors. For example, the direct work of the volunteer ombudsman is the same as the guiding value of the parent organization: to empower and promote the resident's best interest. Performing this job-task is directly fulfilling the dominant organizational goal. In other work situations the linkage between the job context and the guiding organizational values may be less direct or even unclear. Future research might explore this interesting possibility.

Another possibility needing further exploration is the potentially positive influence of the voluntary nature of role participation on job involvement and on subsequent attitudes of organizational commitment.

In sum, while the case for causality is premature, the association between the attitudes of job involvement and organizational commitment was confirmed by this study, and the strength of the association suggested that job involvement is an important element in promoting motivational strengths and organizational loyalty.

Certainly, the practical implications of job involvement for the volunteer program coordinator are significant. People aren't likely to leave jobs with which they have become ego-identified. Moreover the connection between job involvement and job satisfaction and other motivational aspects has been supported by previous research (Blau & Boal, 1987; Gechman & Wiener, 1975; Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977). In fact, Blau and Boal have speculated (p. 289) that "workers with high levels of both job involvement and organizational commitment should be the most motivated because they are attracted by both the job and the organization." Research suggests that job involvement might be increased by structuring the job or fitting the role-holder to tasks that meet the worker's growth needs. Task variety and work autonomy and supportive feedback also appeared to be factors important to the creation and nurturance of job involvement (Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977).

Hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis predicted that organizational commitment will be more highly associated with measures of the advocacy role orientation than levels of collaborative role orientation. This relationship was assumed because the advocacy role orientation is the dominant organizational value, though the program also embraces the

collaborative role strategy as the beginning point of all conflict resolutions. As shown in Table 5, page 116, Pearson correlations showed all three role orientations to be significantly related to organizational commitment. It is true that the relationship between the advocacy role and organizational commitment was stronger than either the neutral therapeutic role or the collaborative role perspectives, offering some possible, although highly tenuous, initial support for hypothesis 3. Taken singly, the common variance for the advocacy orientation predicted about 10 % of the organizational commitment variance, while the collaborative role perspective explained only about four percent of the variance in organizational commitment.

In sum, Oregon ombudsmen gave virtually equal weight to all three role orientations, with the advocacy role dominating slightly. Put simply, for Oregon ombudsmen, the roles clearly overlapped. This may reflect the program's stepped approach to problem resolution which embraces a "progressive" shift from collaborative strategies towards technical advocacy strategies to assure resolution of problems not solved in the initial "win-win" mode. In other words, ombudsmen responses to specific problems may be situationally based. They are trained to be resident advocates, and must be willing to assume an adversarial stance when other methods have failed, but, they are also required to begin all problem resolution attempts through the use of collaborative win/win techniques. Moreover, in line with Litwin's (1982) research, the neutral therapeutic role also seemed to be exhibited along the entire advocacy-collaborative role continuum in Oregon. It may therefore be proposed that in Oregon, Felton's (1974, cited in Monk & Kaye, 1982c, p. 195) model of a "mental health generalist" combining the "functions of the patient advocate, investigator, and therapist" has to some extent been realized. Regardless, this study showed that no single role perspective significantly influenced commitment. All three were highly

associated with organizational commitment, though the advocacy relationship was the strongest. Thus, results lent some support to hypothesis 3.

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 postulated that high organizational commitment would be associated with lower levels of the burnout/emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and with higher levels of personal accomplishment.

Zero-order correlations fully supported this hypothesis. Bivariate relationships suggested that ombudsmen who experience burnout as reflected in high emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and low personal accomplishment scores would be less committed to the organization. However, emotional exhaustion and depersonalization singly predicted only about three percent and one percent respectively of the variance in organizational commitment. On the other hand, personal accomplishment predicted about 17 % of the criterion variance. Thus Oregon ombudsmen felt relatively efficacious in their interventions and were more highly committed to the organization's goals and values.

Though not formally part of the research question, it was interesting to note, that in reviewing the mean scores presented in Table 2, the relative incidence of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization was quite low. Out of a potential high score of thirty, with the low score representing the better alternative for these two values, overall reported means were only .71 and 2.4 for depersonalization and emotional exhaustion respectively. On the other hand, the 12.3 mean for personal accomplishment (where the high score represented the more positive alternative) indicated a group of volunteers who experienced very little burnout and held significantly higher perceptions of self efficacy.

One simple explanation for the very low incidence of depersonalization and emotional exhaustion is that a common reaction to these affects is escape. The rationale is simple. The voluntary nature of Ombudsman job means that when an ombudsman experiences emotional exhaustion or guilt from the defensive mechanism of depersonalization, they simply abandon their volunteer commitment, or, at the very least, reduce the level and/or intensity of their work participation. After all, unlike paid workers, they have complete control over their own work schedules.

It was interesting to note that the regression model also suggested that emotional exhaustion and depersonalization were less influential than personal accomplishment. It is always possible that multicollinearity had obscured significant effects, or that Maslach's constructs were faulty, leading to erroneous hypotheses. For example, it may have been, that the source of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization was more a function of negative affectivity or other personality characteristics than a function of the organizational factors explored here. We might also speculate that the elimination of the problem of work overload and the volunteer's relative control over their patterns of work participation may have minimized the influence of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization on organizational commitment. Of course, undetected factors might have been at work as well. One such possible explanation might be hinted at in Nagy's research (1985). He found that work oriented individuals were less likely to experience burnout. Nagy (p. 196), operationalized "work orientation" as devotion to one's work, the intensity of which manifests in a range from high (akin to workaholism) to low. The low end is apparently closer to job involvement, but is conceptually independent. It is not unreasonable to speculate that factor's akin to "work orientation" that arise from the volunteers' free will devotion to their job, may moderate the effects of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization.

Finally, the relatively strong correlation between personal accomplishment and organizational commitment found in this study is easier to explain. Personal accomplishment is an aspect of self-efficacy. It reflects the "perception of control" (i.e., self-appraisal of performance or helplessness), but also the motivation to be in control, as a method of coping (Lee & Ashforth, 1990, p. 744). Control, inspires action, action both feeds and is fed by motivation, and "motivation is the link between commitment and action" (Isley, 1990, p. 34). This study's finding regarding personal accomplishment supported previous research linking this variable to organizational commitment (Leiter & Maslach, 1988). Put simply, ombudsmen who held higher perceptions of self-efficacy were more supportive of organizational goals and values.

Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5 postulated that higher levels of organizational commitment would be associated with greater age, lower educational attainment and longer job tenure. Surprisingly, the Pearson correlations showed only limited support for this hypothesis. Of these variables education and job tenure had no significant effect on organizational commitment, but age showed a significant relationship. Thus as predicted, older ombudsmen were more committed to the organization than younger ombudsmen. And while not hypothesized, it was interesting to note that there was no correlation between gender and organizational commitment. This controverts Grusky's theory (1966, cited in Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) that women would be more organizationally committed than men because of a greater investment needed by them to attain organizational membership due to increased involvement barriers.

The full regression equation for organizational commitment also suggested the importance of age to organizational commitment. This finding was consistent with a

large body of research linking older age to higher organizational commitment (Angel & Perry, 1981; Larson & Spreitzer, 1973; Luthans, et al. , 1987; Meyer & Allen, 1984; Morris & Sherman, 1981, as cited in DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Sager, 1991a). The key argument for this age/commitment connection is that older volunteers are more highly invested in their commitment to the organization due to a likelihood for a more prolonged pattern of equitable interaction between themselves and the organization. This "time-dependent-investment" argument is exactly similar to the case for an association between organizational commitment and job tenure: Time, strengthened interpersonal associations, tenure, promotion, expanded responsibility and reciprocal investment in training represent forms of investment that argue for a heightened commitment to an organization. But because this study found no association between job tenure and organizational commitment, the time-dependent-investment argument, as applied to the age/commitment connection, proved unsatisfactory. New theorizing is needed to explain the age connection.

It may simply be that younger people have more competing interests and options that work against a deepened organizational attachment. However, more interesting areas of exploration are the potential differences in motivational and other attitudinal factors between younger and older volunteers. One such explanation might be found in the theoretical literature on aging which suggests that older volunteers tend to be more interdependent in their association with the volunteer organization than younger volunteers (Payne & Bull, 1985; Breytspraak, Halpert & Olson, 1985, cited in Peterson and Quadagno, 1985). According to this view, the voluntary organization itself becomes an important social network, a source of informal support, a means to meet esteem needs and, ultimately, a means to promote autonomy. This relationship is reciprocal. Certainly, the Oregon ombudsman program is very dependent on older volunteers to carry out its mission, but it may also be that for many of the older Oregon

ombudsmen, the organizational network in some way enriches their lives by affording them not only an opportunity to make a valuable contribution to the community, but to maintain higher levels of social interaction and to receive support for normal dependencies. This blending of work and personal life, might logically serve to integrate organizational and personal values. The result might be heightened organizational commitment.

Finally, this study failed to lend further support to the previous research linking higher educational levels to lower organizational commitment. One explanation may be that the voluntary nature of ombudsman work, its relative difficulty and its high task diversity attenuates expected educational differences with respect to the influence of organizational commitment. Another possible explanation might derive from the equity theories of motivation which have been cited as evidence for the negative correlation between organizational commitment and higher levels of education (Mowday et. al., cited in Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). These theories argued that better educated workers seek higher rewards to achieve equity expectations. But since the rewards of volunteerism are largely intrinsic (Isley, 1990), it might be argued that the more highly educated volunteer worker is less likely to be looking for greater alternative reward opportunities than a paid employee of similar educational background. Thus, a potential barrier to organizational entrenchment is diminished, and the effect of education is attenuated.

Factors Most Strongly Influencing Burnout

The second research question asked if there were relevant relationships between the three dimensions of psychological burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment) and role orientation, conflict and ambiguity and job

involvement and with the demographic factors of gender, age, education, and length of service.

Overall correlational analyses only partially supported the hypotheses regarding burnout. Because burnout is measured by three separate regressions, the following discussion will be organized around findings from the individual subscale components of burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment.

Emotional Exhaustion

The bivariate correlations for emotional exhaustion showed that role conflict, role ambiguity, job involvement, organizational commitment, and years of service have small but statistically significant effects on emotional exhaustion. A comparison of the different correlational values between the independent variables and emotional exhaustion is represented in Figure 3. No contribution for any of these variables singly predicted more than six percent of the variance in emotional exhaustion. While not hypothesized, the correlation between depersonalization and emotional exhaustion was high, with depersonalization explaining 18 % of the emotional exhaustion variance. The emotional exhaustion regression yielded an overall significant equation in which role conflict and years of service, job involvement, role ambiguity, and organizational commitment explained about 11 % of the variance in emotional exhaustion. However, only the effects of years of service and role conflict achieved significance in the regression analysis. Obviously much of the variance in emotional exhaustion remains to be explained.

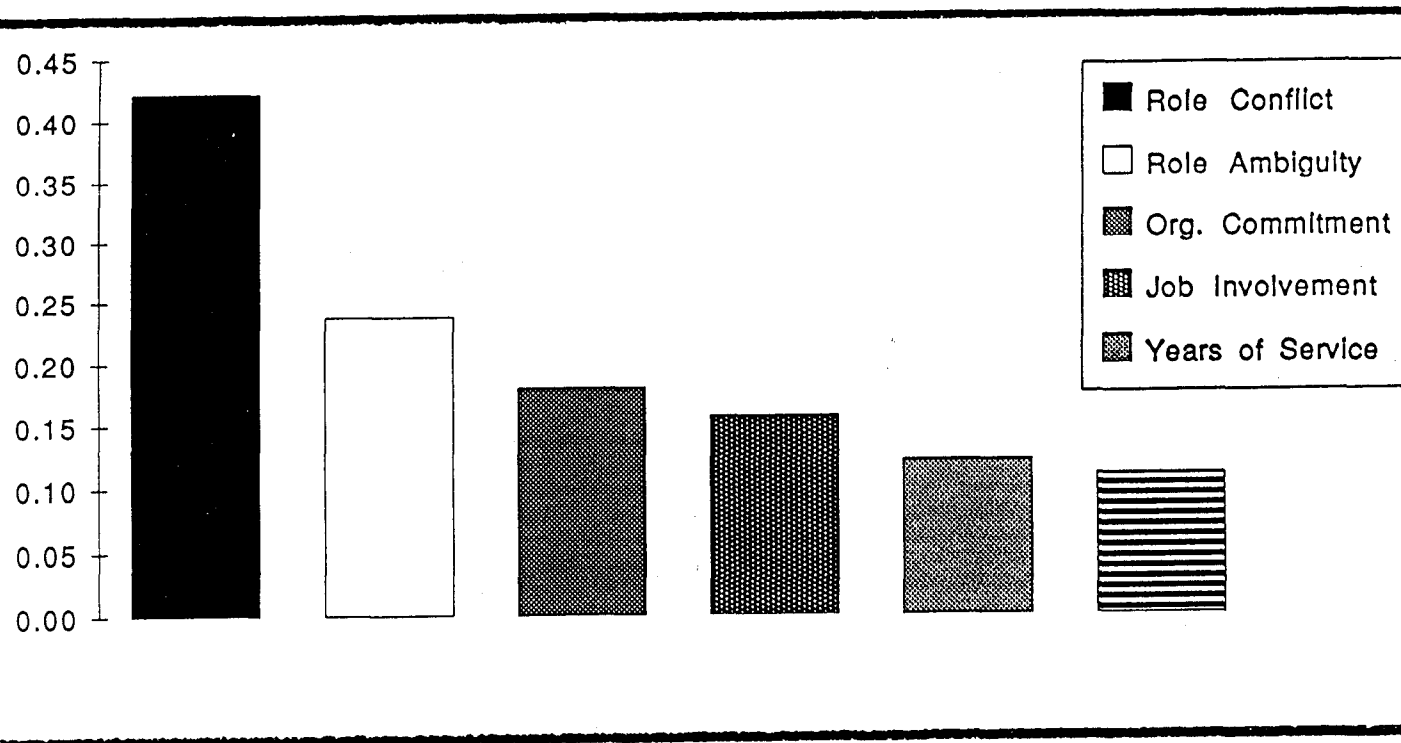


Figure 3. Strength of correlations between independent variables and emotional exhaustion.

Depersonalization

Bivariate correlations showed that organizational commitment, years of service, emotional exhaustion, and being male were significantly and positively correlated to depersonalization. Personal accomplishment showed a significant negative association with depersonalization. With the exception of emotional exhaustion, discussed above, each of these associations was generally weak, with each individually explaining no more three percent of the variance in depersonalization. The gender difference, for example, while significant, was trivial. Out of a potential depersonalization score of 30, men and women scored less than one. A comparison of the different correlational values between the independent variables and depersonalization is represented in Figure 4.

Aside from the non-hypothesized but expected burnout dimension correlations, the joint effect of regressed variables proved significant with years of service, gender, and organizational commitment contributing six percent of the variance in depersonalization. Of these, only the contributions of years of service and gender achieved significance in the regression analysis.

Personal Accomplishment

Bivariate correlations showed nine variables to be individually important to personal accomplishment, they were role conflict, role ambiguity, all three role orientations, organizational commitment, depersonalization, age and gender. All associations were in line with this study's hypothetical formulations with the exception of age. Surprisingly, older ombudsmen reported less personal accomplishment.

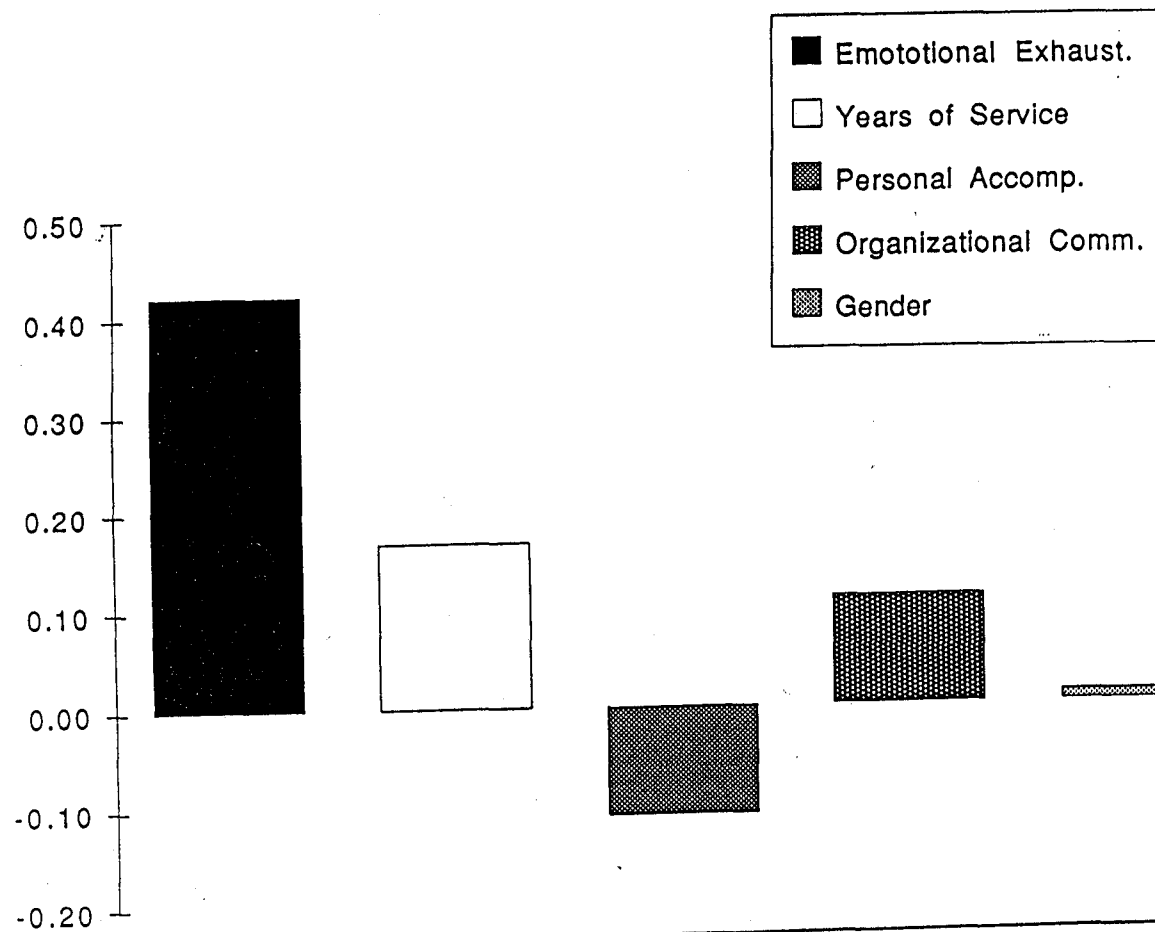


Figure 4. Strength of correlations between independent variables and depersonalization.

A comparison of the different correlational values between the independent variables and personal accomplishment is represented in Figure 5.

The regression equation was significant in explaining 42 % of the variance in personal accomplishment. Age, job involvement, role ambiguity, all three role orientations, gender, role conflict, and role ambiguity as well as organizational commitment proved to be important in this model for predicting personal accomplishment. As shall be shown, these findings yielded some general support for the hypotheses.

Hypothesis 6

Hypothesis 6, postulated that higher emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and lower personal accomplishment would be associated with higher role conflict and role ambiguity. Some support for this hypothesis was found in the zero-order correlations. Role conflict and ambiguity were positively associated with emotional exhaustion and low personal accomplishment, but not with depersonalization. Aside from this last exception, the findings therefore, generally supported the preponderant view that role conflicted and confused workers are more prone to job stress, disengagement and burnout (Jackson, Schuler & Schwab, 1986; Jayaratne & Chess, 1984; Kahn, et al., 1964; Miles, 1975; Stout & Posner, 1984).

However, the lack of an association between role stress (conflict and ambiguity) and depersonalization, while unexpected, is not without some precedent. In fact, Wallace and Brinkerhoff (1991), found only indirect or insignificant results for the the influence of these role stress variables on burnout. Why? One very simple general explanation is that role conflict and ambiguity are to some extent inevitable (Jayaratne & Chess, 1984) but are more easily controlled or buffered by volunteer workers who

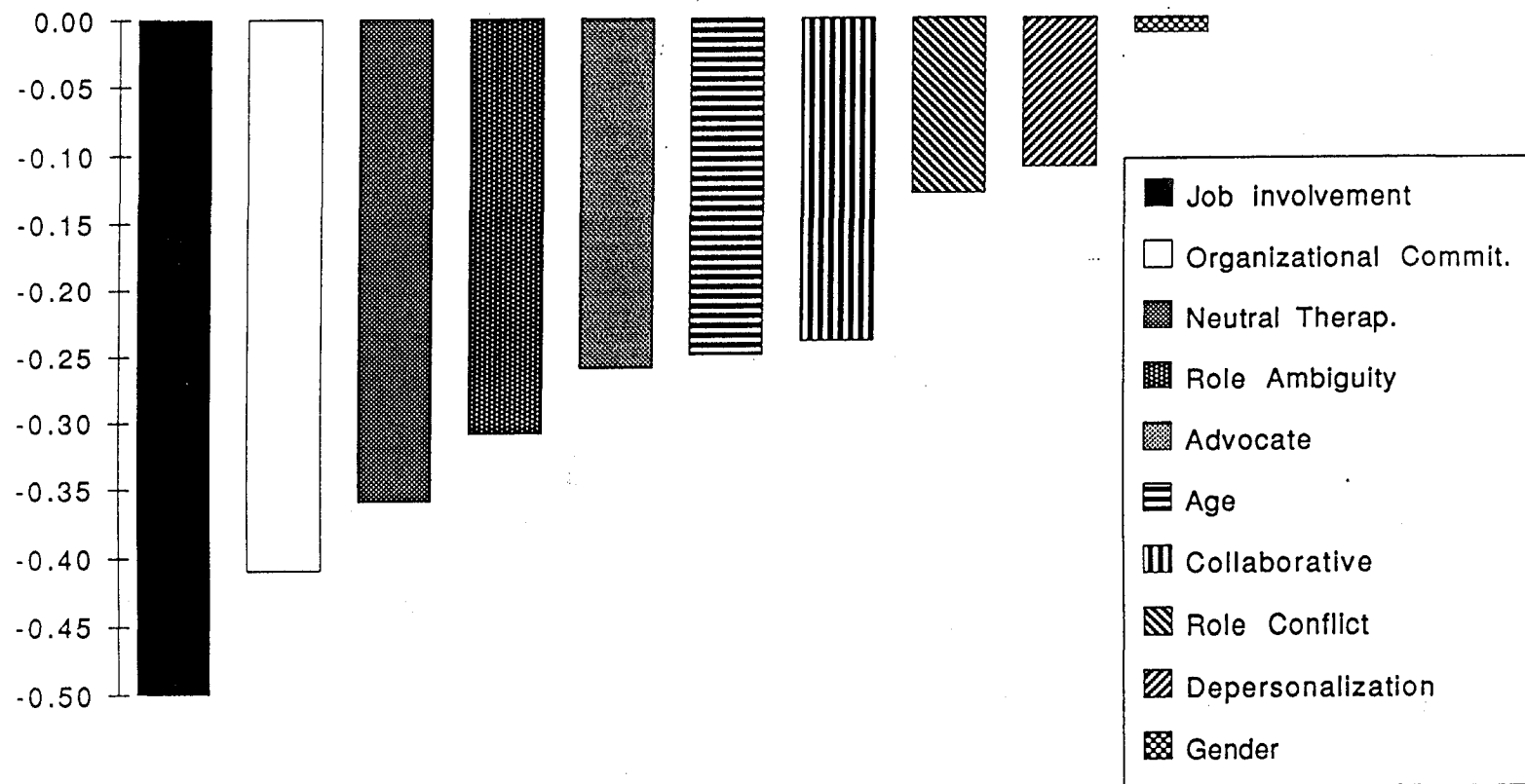


Figure 5. Strength of correlations between independent variables and personal accomplishment.

have complete control over their patterns of work participation. This control over work involvement served as an important basis for possible stress buffering effects and is a theme that appeared and reappeared throughout the course of this discussion.

Another possible explanation was presented by Harris (1991) who suggested that role conflict and ambiguity may manifest very differently depending on the internal or external source of the perceived role stress. Maslach and Jackson (1981a), for example, have theorized that depersonalization is conceived of as a coping response to emotional exhaustion. If this is true, and the source of role stress is external to the client relationship, then client depersonalization would not be an expected coping response associated with role conflict because we might logically expect that the coping response would also be directed externally.

For example, role conflict may be derived from care-provider contacts and not from resident contacts. Some support for this idea might be inferred from question V6A (Appendix K) which asks if ombudsmen are blamed by the residents for their problems; 71 % of the ombudsmen responded "never." Another 22 % said "only a few times a year" This seems to suggest that long-term care residents are not a demanding or a blameful population. If this is true, then it would logically stand to reason that residents are not an important source of role conflict and concomitant emotional exhaustion. Consequently, one would not expect to find much evidence for ombudsmen coping with non-resident derived stress and strain via resident depersonalization, which was confirmed. A closer look at this explanation as it specifically relates to role conflict is warranted.

The burnout literature cited demands made by clients as an important cause of emotional exhaustion and subsequent attitudes of client depersonalization (Shinn et al., 1984). Client demands were in turn logically associated with an increased risk for divergent expectations that may lead to increased role conflict. However, it seems

likely that the highly impaired, long-term care resident population, which has been characterized as being especially prone to "situational withdrawal" (Goffman, 1961 cited in Kart, 1985), make few demands on ombudsmen. It is far more likely that the source of divergent expectations is the result of competing considerations arising from care providers whose attitudes are influenced by organizational efficiency interests. In this context, resident depersonalization would be an irrelevant coping mechanism for this source of role conflict.

A similar argument might be advanced for the absence of a relationship between role ambiguity and depersonalization. But with role ambiguity one might more logically expect to find an internal source. That is to say, that role ambiguity springs from confusion about the ombudsman's role in the long-term care system. It is directly related to the job dynamic itself. Any resulting emotional exhaustion could be more directly controlled by evasion, withdrawal or inappropriate job focus, but less likely to be defended against by depersonalizing the client, which would be a means of coping with externally based client problems.

Regardless, this study's counterintuitive findings for depersonalization cry out for further analysis not only with respect to role conflict and role ambiguity in the context of volunteerism, but also to explore the influence of coping strategies in altering the source of stress or in regulating distressful emotions. It may also be that these constructs are not unidimensional, but multidimensional, and may require fine grained analysis and subsequent redefinition (Harris, 1991).

Hypothesis 7

Hypotheses 7 postulated that higher job involvement would be associated with lower depersonalization, emotional exhaustion and higher personal accomplishment.

Once again bivariate correlations showed that, as expected, ombudsmen who were ego-identified with their volunteer job showed less propensity for emotional exhaustion and a greater sense of personal accomplishment. The relationship between emotional exhaustion and job involvement was statistically significant, but relatively weak, explaining only about one percent of the variance in emotional exhaustion. On the other hand, the relationship between job involvement and personal accomplishment was relatively strong and explained about 25 % of the variance in personal accomplishment. This study showed no connection between depersonalization and job involvement.

Put simply, this study's results indicated that job involved workers experienced less emotional exhaustion. This relationship might be explained by the premise that high job involvement implies a positive interaction between the individual and his or her job (Rabinowitz and Hall, 1975). In other words, volunteers who were more highly identified with their jobs appeared to also experience more satisfaction and motivation with their job and less dysfunction and job pressure, which in turn can lead to emotional exhaustion.

This study also indicated that a more highly job involved ombudsman experienced a greater sense of personal efficacy. The strong connection between personal accomplishment and job involvement might be explained by Bandura's (1977 cited in Meir, 1983) assertion that efficacy perceptions influence the nature and strength of an individual's participation or involvement in a given activity. This connection might also be conceived of as interactive. The heightened experience of personal accomplishment feeds the volunteer's intention to perform and achieve thus nourishing the ombudsman's self esteem. In so doing, there is an increased likelihood that the volunteer will psychologically identify with his or her job in a positive way (Clearfield, 1977; Reitz & Jewell, 1979). This positive psychological affect is motivational. It

inspires action that further supports the volunteer's positive perception of their job involvement. Conversely, as Meier (1983) has observed, low perceptions of self efficacy result in diminished job knowledge, competency, satisfaction and, we might logically add, involvement.

The failure to find a relationship between job involvement and depersonalization might once again be explained by Maslach and Jackson's (1981a) conceptualization of depersonalization as a consequence of emotional exhaustion. In this connection, it seems safe to argue that ombudsmen who are less job involved and who also report higher emotional exhaustion, might more easily cope with job strain by controlling time involvement than by depersonalizing the client (Rogers, 1987).

Alternatively, another more complex explanation may be derived from Wallace and Brinkerhoff's (1991) finding of a positive relationship between job involvement and depersonalization. Their theory held that workers who are more psychologically invested in their jobs may employ depersonalization as a means of limiting personal over-involvement with client problems. This form of coping allows them to defend against client-based stress and maintain a positive affect towards the job. Failure of this inverse relationship to manifest in the present study might once again relate to the volunteer's total discretion over patterns of participation. It is easier for the volunteer to withdraw from work than to stick-it-out to the point of having to employ other self-defense measures.

This study seemed to leave little doubt that for the volunteer ombudsmen, ego-identification with the job was an important correlate to a sense of self efficacy since job involvement explained 25 % of the variance in personal accomplishment (r -squared = .25). This finding alone strongly argues for the future inclusion of job involvement in the study of volunteer program effectiveness.

Hypothesis 8

Hypothesis 8 predicted that the burnout dimensions of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization would be inversely correlated with higher levels of education and length of service. First with respect to length of service, results showed no support for the hypothesis. In fact, contrary to expectation, the present study's findings showed that length of service was positively associated with both emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. And while the effects were small, accounting for only about two and three percent of the variance in emotional exhaustion and depersonalization respectively, they ran counter to research by Maslach and Jackson (1981a), and Corcoran (1987) which showed that longer tenured employees were less likely to experience emotional exhaustion and depersonalization than less tenured employees. Nevertheless, our findings were not without precedence. Research by Nagy and Davis (1985), Johnson and Stone (1987), and LeCoy and Rank, (1987) also failed to show a positive association between job tenure and burnout.

This was a troublesome issue. First of all, it seemed clear that this time-dependent proneness to increased burnout is not indirectly related to greater age, because we found no correlation between age and job stress and strain. Perhaps longer tenured workers somehow deal with stress less effectively--although this runs counter to the notion that coping strategies improve over time on the job (Motowidlo, Manning & Packard, 1986) and that longer tenured workers have already successfully adapted to job stress and strain. A tentative, though somewhat more intellectually satisfying explanation might be that longer tenured workers simply accumulate more stress over time. Work stress may be additive, and prolonged exposure to even relatively mild levels of job stress might eventually begin to exhaust, or at least strain the volunteers coping resources. The onset of exhaustion might trigger the volunteer's mobilization of

the depersonalization defense mechanism to cope with the additive stress effect. At any rate, this finding suggests that time on the job is not an important factor and that personality and/or organizational or other contextual factors may require further study in this regard (Nagy & Davis, 1985).

Hypothesis 9

Hypothesis 9 predicted that there would be a negative correlation between lower levels of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment and older age, or to put it another way, older ombudsmen would be less burned-out. Unexpectedly, results for depersonalization and emotional exhaustion were non-significant and older age was associated with lower personal accomplishment. Age ($r = -.25$; $r\text{-squared} = .06$) accounted for about six percent of the variance in personal accomplishment. This correlation, while low, still represented a most surprising finding. It meant that older ombudsmen tended to evaluate themselves more negatively than younger ombudsmen. It did not mean, however, that older ombudsmen were necessarily more burned out. After all, this study showed that work stress and strain as gaged by emotional exhaustion and depersonalization was not correlated with age. This left us with the intriguing question of why older ombudsmen who appeared to respond and adapt to stressful work situations as well as younger ombudsmen, felt less personally efficacious.

While highly speculative, one possible explanation for this difference may reflect the older ombudsman's general adjustment to negative cultural assumptions about aging (Carmichael, Botan & Hawkins, 1988). Many elements of American society harbor an anti-age bias. Through the socialization process the older, retired ombudsman volunteer may have internalized some feelings of obsolescence or even

incompetence that is not shared by their younger counterpart (McPherson, 1983). A recent survey of volunteers aged 65 and older found that fully 53 % of the respondents cited their main reason for volunteering as a need to do something useful (Kouri, 1990). This reason for volunteering may reflect a defensive posture employed against a sense of creeping loss of self worth.

It is also worth mentioning that the source of this ageistic bias may either be external (e.g. nursing staff, other government employees), or internal, the ombudsmen themselves, or the paid professional staff. For example, volunteers promoted to paid positions in the ombudsman organization are among the youngest of all program participants. The paid staff's age range is 28 years old to 41. This lack of older ombudsman professional staff may in fact, unintentionally communicate a bias against older workers.

It is also worth mentioning that any age related feelings of work devaluation may be exacerbated by the generally lower status accorded volunteer workers (Mausner, 1988; Zischka & Jones, 1988). Many care providers, social work professionals and even some ombudsman program paid staff, for example, "tend to undervalue work that is not paid for" (Kathy Walter, Ombudsman Program Volunteer Recruitment Supervisor, personal communication, April 4, 1993). It is not impossible that this undervaluation of free labor is communicated to the volunteer through a variety of verbal and non-verbal means. The older volunteer might be more susceptible to this negative feedback because they are more likely to be retired than younger volunteers or may have reduced social interactions which might buffer this effect. If this is the case, is it not reasonable to assume that ageistic and anti-voluntaristic values might to some extent be internalized by the older, retired volunteer worker, who even if acting capably, may perceive his or her own efforts as somehow less than satisfactory?

Finally, while highly speculative, another explanation for this finding may be that older workers harbor more intense rescue fantasies regarding residents than younger workers because they feel, quite literally, closer to the problem. This enhanced empathy attachment might increase efficacy expectations which are more difficult to fulfill. The result could be a lessened sense of personal accomplishment.

Certainly this is an interesting issue. There is a need to examine the possible source of apparent lower age related perceptions of personal efficacy, to determine whether they are derived from job setting, the volunteer nature of the work, or are attributable to the internalization of ageistic bias and if so, whether the source of this bias is internal or external.

Hypothesis 10

Hypothesis 10 predicted that males would exhibit higher levels of depersonalization than females, and that females would show higher levels of emotional exhaustion. The data partly supported this hypothesis. Males tended to depersonalize clients more than females, but this association was very weak and was deemed unimportant. Furthermore, contradicting hypothesis 10, was the finding that females showed no greater tendency towards emotional exhaustion than males.

The finding that males are more prone to client depersonalization than females was in the direction of previous research which has consistently shown a masculine tendency towards emotional detachment (Greenglass & Burke, 1988; Greenglass et al., 1990; Maslach, 1982; Maslach & Jackson, 1985; Ogus, et al., 1990; Williams, 1989). While the effect was quite weak, it was statistically significant and suggested that male ombudsmen might be less empathetic than female ombudsmen. Another

possibility relates to potential differences in our population between male and female patterns of social support.

As mentioned, the data failed to support the hypothesized prediction that female ombudsmen would experience more emotional exhaustion than males. This finding is in line with Martocchio and O'Leary's (1989) meta-analytic review of gender differences which also found no support for heightened female susceptibility to emotional exhaustion. This finding calls into question the time-honored notion that women are more emotionally giving, or nurturant than men. One possible explanation is that there is an increased tendency towards androgeny in older adults, with women becoming more aggressive and men becoming more nurturing (Neugarten & Gutman, 1954, cited in McPherson, 1983).

Regardless, this issue cries out for further analysis as to whether or not gender accounts for any significant difference in the stress-burnout response to job related conflict, burden and tension.

Finally, while not hypothesized, another interesting finding in this study was the higher reported perception of personal accomplishment among female ombudsmen. Many possible, albeit, highly conjectural reasons for this connection might be put forth, but none can be supported by empirical data. One possible explanation is that age is a moderator of this effect. Women in this study were younger than men and this research showed that older age is associated with lower perceptions of personal accomplishment.

Other possible explanations might relate to differences in the respective gender's social support networks. The preponderance of women in this program, and in volunteerism generally, for example, might imply more opportunities for women to meet affiliation needs. Or perhaps there is a fundamental difference in male and female perceptions of the value of non-paid work derived from the internalization of work-

power values as an artifact of their respective work history experiences. These ideas need to be explored in future research.

Summary of Findings

This study's theoretical framework suggested that a number of job characteristic and demographic variables would be importantly related to organizational commitment and burnout (as measured in three dimensions of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment).

This study found that all job characteristic variables were significantly related to organizational commitment. However, aside from the demographic variable of age, other demographic variables (years of service, gender and educational level), failed to show important relationships to organizational commitment. Regression analysis revealed that the joint effect of the independent variables explained 35% of the organizational commitment variance. Moreover, with the same demographic factor exceptions just mentioned, all relationships accorded with hypothetical predictions.

These findings persuasively argued that much of the paid-work research on these variables is applicable to the realm of non-paid work and that selected variables studied here were important factors impacting voluntary organizational effectiveness. Perhaps one of the most important findings was the strong showing of job involvement as an important factor relating to both organizational commitment ($r = .50$) and personal accomplishment ($r = -.50$). In sum, while the case for causality is premature, the strength of the association between the attitudes of job involvement and organizational commitment evidenced in this study suggests that job involvement should be included in future organizational commitment and volunteer program research.

Although somewhat more equivocal, this study's findings also indicated the general collective importance of job characteristic variables to burnout in its dimensions of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and low personal accomplishment. Furthermore, with the exception of education, demographic factors also showed some important linkage to the burnout dimensions. Aside from organizational commitment the influence of the other job characteristic variables to the different burnout subscales was less consistent.

Specifically, emotional exhaustion was associated with years of service, job involvement, role conflict, and ambiguity and organizational commitment. When placed into a regression model, these independent variables explained approximately 11 % of the variability in emotional exhaustion.

Years of service, gender, and organizational commitment were found to be significantly related to depersonalization when examined individually. When jointly regressed on depersonalization they were found to explain approximately six percent of the variability in depersonalization.

Personal Accomplishment was found to be significantly related to nine variables. They were: gender, all three role orientations, age, role conflict, ambiguity, job involvement, and organizational commitment. Subsequent regression analysis showed that these variables explained about 42 % of the variance in personal accomplishment.

With respect to burnout, several hypotheses were not supported. Particularly, depersonalization was not predicted by any of the job characteristic variables aside from organizational commitment. In fact, no variables aside from organizational commitment, years of service, and gender, and the non-hypothesized but expected relationships with the other burnout dimensions proved significantly related to depersonalization. Also, no hypothetical formulation regarding the influence of

education proved valid. Nor did the expected relationships between burnout, and age, and duration of service present themselves in the directions predicted in the hypothetical formulations. Moreover, the three role orientations failed to show significant associations with burnout's emotional exhaustion and depersonalization subscales. All three showed significant negative correlations to the personal accomplishment subscale. In this connection, it is interesting to note that the neutral therapeutic role orientation appeared to be stronger and more significantly correlated with personal accomplishment than either of the contest orientations, both collaborative and advocacy. Finally, as mentioned, only organizational commitment was significantly related to all three burnout dimensions.

It bears stressing that our hypothesized predictions about the correlates of organizational commitment and burnout were generally supported by regression analyses with respect to joint effects of conceptually related job characteristic variables, and to a lesser, extent, some of this study's demographic factors. Nevertheless, much of the variance in dependent variables was not accounted for indicating the preliminary and explorational nature of this voluntary action research study.

While the reported perceptions of burnout among Oregon ombudsmen is quite low, this study provided additional evidence that the job characteristic variables of role conflict, ambiguity, organizational commitment, and job involvement have important implications for the manifestation of burnout in the dimensions of emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment. They should be further studied in relationship to the appearance of volunteer burnout in human service organizations.

In conclusion, it would seem that this study provided strong direction for developing a more complete model of organizational effectiveness incorporating the job context variables of organizational commitment, job involvement, role conflict, ambiguity, and the affect of personal accomplishment.

The following section presents a synopsis of this study's most practically important findings.

Review of Key Findings

1. This study's findings suggest that ombudsmen who had a clear understanding of their organizational role and who had little confusion regarding performance expectations and job responsibilities also showed stronger ties to the organization and were generally more supportive of the organization's goals and values.
2. Ombudsmen who had a clear understanding of their job experienced less job stress and strain.
3. Volunteer ombudsmen who held higher perceptions of self-efficacy were more supportive of organizational goals and values. That is, they were more committed.
4. Volunteer ombudsmen who were psychologically engaged (ego-involved) in their work-role were more committed, less burned-out, and felt more personally efficacious in their work.
5. Oregon Ombudsmen experienced all three strategy orientations equally (advocate, collaborative, and neutral therapeutic).
6. Burnout is not a problem for Oregon volunteer long-term care ombudsmen.

Recommendations for Future Research

This research clearly argues for the continued examination of factors contributing to organizational commitment and burnout in volunteer human service organizations.

Nevertheless, the reader should use some caution in inferring these results beyond the population of Oregon volunteer Certified Ombudsmen. Still, It is likely that findings regarding job context, work-role and selected demographic influences found to be important in this research were indicative of factors that might influence organizational commitment for other volunteer ombudsman programs and for the general population of paraprofessional volunteers. Therefore, future study of these important variables might follow some of the following recommendations:

1. First of all, this study should be replicated in other volunteer settings to reconcile contradictions and help make better sense of some of the equivocal findings from earlier cross sectional research.
2. Other job context factors such as perceptions of supervisor support and job satisfaction predictors should be considered for inclusion in order to explain more variance in organizational commitment and burnout. Future research should test a mixture of the job context variables, such as those examined in this study, with other factors, including personality characteristics and social support variables not presently examined, to allow for discriminative analysis. It might be especially important to include intrapersonal variables to help determine the subject's subjective assessment of and subsequent reaction to organizational environmental issues examined in this study.

3. Future research might examine the strength and directness of the relationship linking the volunteer job to guiding organizational values in terms of the relationship's impact on both organizational commitment and job involvement. Does the job examined have a clear and straight impact on key organizational values and goals or is the work role indirect and supportive? Do volunteers immersed in job contexts with rectilinear links to organizational values show greater job involvement and/or organizational commitment?

4. Future studies are also needed to assess the relationship between male depersonalization and empathy and to determine if male ombudsmen are more pragmatic and problem oriented and less client oriented than female ombudsmen and to determine if any identified differences are physiologically based or the result of differential socialization. Potentially gender based differences in coping strategies that may have an impact in altering the source of stress or in regulating distressful emotions among men and women should also be examined. Research also needs to examine the influence of male and female social support networks to identify possible gender based differences.

5. Another possibility needing further exploration is the potentially positive influence of the voluntary nature of role participation on job involvement and on subsequent attitudes of organizational commitment.

6. There is also a need to examine the possible reasons for the apparent lower age related perceptions of personal efficacy reported by Oregon Ombudsman to determine whether they are derived from job setting, the volunteer nature of the work, or are

attributable to the internalization of ageistic bias and if so, whether the source of this bias is internal or external.

7. Future research should examine factors relating to the individual's psychological state and basic affective make-up and other psychological qualities and factors of personality should be studied. The organizational approach, for example, may undervalue the importance of individual coping strategies as well as the influence of negative or positive affectivity along with other conceivable behaviors and perceptions that might have a bearing on the levels of attitudes and behaviors reported in this research.

8. This study makes no pretense of asserting causality. Additional theoretical and empirical thinking and analysis should be undertaken to determine the causal ordering of variables examined so that a model of factors influencing organizational commitment and burnout might be developed and tested. A structural equations model of path analysis might be employed to confirm the causal sequence of relations implied in this study.

9. Additionally, even though it is generally assumed that work stressors are stable over time, longitudinal studies must be employed to test this assumption.

10. There is also a need to recode Maslach and Jackson's (1981) personal accomplishment burnout subscale to make it consistent with the emotional exhaustion and depersonalization subscales.

11. Finally, it bears stressing that the almost unexpected importance of job involvement in predicting organizational commitment and personal accomplishment argues for a rigorous examination of this variable in the context of volunteerism. The present research certainly supports previous findings suggesting the importance of job involvement to worker self esteem. And insofar as this is the case, it seems that job involvement will prove to be especially important to volunteer job commitment, a point of view that now seems extremely likely. Nevertheless, future research needs to be designed to determine whether or not job involvement is an intrinsic motivator, and to identify its causal ordering with respect to both positive and negative organizational outcomes. What is its relationship to organizational commitment? Is it an interactive relationship, or is it either an antecedent or consequence of organizational attachment?

Implications for Practice

Study findings suggest a number of directions that ombudsman volunteer program supervisors might explore to generally enhance organizational effectiveness by promoting greater commitment to the organization, encouraging job involvement, reducing role conflict and ambiguity, and enhancing the volunteer's general sense of personal accomplishment. To these ends, training is an indisputably important element to any process of performance improvement. Study findings with implications for training and supervision will now be presented to link this research to the positive practical influence of volunteer productivity.

First, this study suggested that organizational dedication was positively associated with desirable organizational outcomes and negatively correlated with undesirable factors. "Commitment or loyalty determines the object upon which actions are focused. In turn commitment, is shaped by values and beliefs " (Isley, 1990, p.

33). Therefore, the clear articulation of organizational goals and values in any and all program trainings should strongly encourage motivation. All training and as much of the volunteer leaders' daily interaction with volunteers as possible should be directed to assure that the volunteer is fully aware of how his or her responsibilities and performance relate to the successful accomplishment of guiding organizational goals.

In short, formal and informal training must be developed around the central values of the organization. Even the most routine work assignments associated with the volunteer job must be shown to be of relevance to the promotion of the organization's ultimate values. Clear value-linked job expectations are the key concepts that must be imparted and continually reinforced through supervision and training interventions. Moreover, clear job-related expectations will combat the stress and strain associated with role ambiguity.

Broadly speaking, the leader of volunteers must embrace a transformational leadership style in which the leader works to transform the values of the organizational participant into the values of the organization. In so doing, the transformational leader will encourage action towards organizational objectives by encouraging "volunteers to examine, express, and act on their values" (Isley, 1990, p. 131). This presupposes the notion that the volunteer leader should be adept at listening to the volunteers needs, hopes, goals, and personal feelings in order to understand their motivational values and thereby be able, through processes of positive manipulation, to facilitate the reconciliation of these personal affects to the larger organizational equivalents.

The volunteer screening and recruitment process should also be designed to draw volunteers into the program that share the program's values.

As mentioned, these results corroborated previous research showing that lack of job clarity leads to job stress and strain and a reduced sense of personal accomplishment. Therefore, clear expectations regarding job responsibility and

performance standards will reduce role confusion, enhance organizational commitment, job involvement and personal accomplishment. It will decrease job stress in the form of emotional exhaustion, thereby collectively increasing motivation.

This study suggested that role conflict is a factor contributing to job stress and strain in the form of emotional exhaustion. Therefore, ombudsman program leaders must identify any source of divergent role expectations and design training interventions which promote skills that will help eliminate this barrier to organizational effectiveness, thus improving the volunteer's sense of personal accomplishment and ultimately their organizational commitment.

Moreover, if a key source of role conflict is external, care providers, for example, the ombudsman program might employ Litwin's recommendation that "a clearer delineation of the ombudsman role and strategy needs to be publicized to reduce friction" (1982, p. 198). Training programs aimed at explaining the ombudsman program's special niche in the long-term care system should encourage realistic provider expectations about ombudsman involvement and reduce role conflict.

Managers of volunteers must also increase the volunteer's involvement with his or her job in order to encourage intrinsic satisfaction. Some of the aforementioned training interventions will also help in this regard. Decreasing role ambiguity, for example, might lead to increased job involvement. And increasing organizational commitment through clear values training might increase job involvement if these variables prove to be interactive. But the volunteer program manager must draw upon research relating to the management of organizational behavior to increase intrinsic job involvement. "*Blitzkrieg* training and task-design" should help. That is, management must design training and tasks, that are exciting, stimulating, diverse, appropriately challenging, and not overly protracted. Such experiences should energize the volunteer by promoting involvement and engendering feelings of competence and achievement

(Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). Building the volunteer's confidence by reducing barriers to individual accomplishment will breed renewed attempts at replicating success.

Volunteer managers should also implement policies that increase the prestige and positional power of the volunteer job. Some flexibility in job design is desirable. To be sure, individualized working conditions are out of the question, but, tasks and training involvement should be tailored as much as possible to meet the volunteer's individual needs.

Other very general supervisory best practices might also be employed to increase job involvement, organizational commitment, and personal accomplishment and reduce role conflict, ambiguity and job stress and strain. Evaluation programs that offer regular feedback are an important beginning step. Regular support group meetings among ombudsmen volunteers should "foster information exchange, formation of group solidarity, and individual reinforcement" (Litwin, 1982, P. 198).

Finally, the volunteer program leader should strive to show confidence in volunteers and should be ever vigilant of opportunities for positive reinforcement of all work habit improvements. In general, participatory leadership styles should be encouraged as opposed to autocratic or laissez-faire management styles.

While burnout does not seem to be a serious problem in the Oregon ombudsman program, the application of the aforementioned interventions will also do much to minimize any deleterious effects associated with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization by reducing "ambiguity and feelings of powerlessness," (Paradis, et al., 1987; Rogers, 1987, p. 104).

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Oregon

OFFICE OF

THE LONG

TERM CARE

OMBUDSMAN

September 29, 1992

«first» «last»
«address»
«city state ZIP»

Dear «first»:

A noted scholar of social work recently wrote that "the work of the ombudsman is the most difficult in the field of aging." Nevertheless, a recent study published in *The Gerontologist* showed "that the presence of an ombudsman program was found to be the most important factor associated with quality for intermediate care [nursing] facilities." Ombudsmen make a difference. Unfortunately, there is very little information on work-related factors that make the ombudsman volunteer effort a meaningful, rewarding and worthwhile experience for some volunteers, but less so or not at all for others. Without such information, and without a clear understanding of what can be done to improve the ombudsman's work environment, effective program policies will continue to be difficult to formulate.

As an ombudsman, this office and Oregon State University are interested in the nature of your volunteer work experience. The only way we can find out is to ask you. All volunteer ombudsmen have been sent this questionnaire. The information you provide will be used to help improve the Oregon ombudsman program and other ombudsman programs nationally. But for this information to be useful, it is important that each questionnaire be completed and returned.

You may be assured of complete confidentiality. The questionnaire has an identification number for mailing purposes only. This enables us to check your name off of the mailing list when your questionnaire is returned so that we won't have to incur the expense of a follow-up reminder letter. Your name will never be placed on the questionnaire. You will never be identified. Moreover, if you are still hesitant, the mail-code in the upper right hand corner may be torn off, and the questionnaire returned without it.

For these of you who are interested, we will be happy to share the results with you. What we learn will help us better run this program and provide information that can be used to improve the ombudsman work environment. Ultimately, long term care residents will be better served. If you have any questions, please call Wayne Nelson at the office at 1-800-522-2602.

Thank you sincerely for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Wayne Nelson, MA, MBA
Deputy Long Term Care Ombudsman

Meredith Cote, JD
Long Term Care Ombudsman



2475 Lancaster Ave., Suite 101
B-9
Salem, OR 97301
(503) 576-6222
Toll free 1-800-522-2602

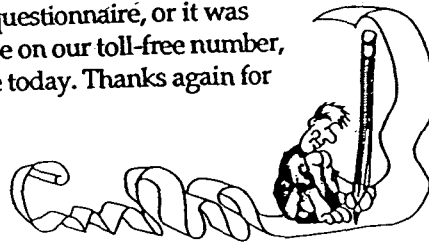
Dear Ombudsman,

Last week, I sent you a questionnaire seeking your opinion about your volunteer experience as a Certified Long Term Care Ombudsman. All of Oregon's Certified Ombudsmen received this questionnaire.

If you have already completed and returned it, please accept my sincere thanks. If not, please do so today. The study's validity depends on a high response rate—as close to 100% as possible. It is extremely important that your responses be included in the study if the results are to accurately represent the opinions of Oregon's Ombudsmen.

If by any chance you did not receive the questionnaire, or it was misplaced, please call me, Patricia or Zarie on our toll-free number, 1-800-522-2602. We'll send you a new one today. Thanks again for your help.

Sincerely,
Redacted for
privacy
Wayne Nelson



Oregon

OFFICE OF
THE LONG
TERM CARE
OMBUDSMAN

October 16, 1992

«first» «last»
«address»
«city state ZIP»

Dear «first»:

About three weeks ago I wrote to you seeking your opinion about your volunteer experience in the Ombudsman program. As of today we have not yet received your completed questionnaire.

This research is important because of the job of certified ombudsman, while very rewarding can, at times, be very difficult and complex. This study will help us understand more about pressures, challenges and motivations shaping your work experience and will tell us something about why Ombudsmen do what they do. It will pave the way for program improvements that should help us make the ombudsman job an easier, more rewarding and effective endeavor in the future.

I am writing to you again because of the significance each questionnaire has to the usefulness of this study. In order for the results of this study to be truly representative of the opinions of all Oregon ombudsmen, it is essential that each person in the program return their questionnaire.

In the event that your questionnaire has been misplaced, a replacement is enclosed.

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated. If you have any questions, please call me.

Sincerely,

Wayne Nelson



2475 Lancaster Avenue, NE
B-9
Salem, OR 97331
(503) 596-4333
Toll free 1-800-577-7022

Oregon

OFFICE OF
THE LONG
TERM CARE
OMBUDSMAN

«first» «last»
«address»
«city state ZIP»

Dear «first»:

I am writing to you about our study of ombudsman work and organizational experience. We have not yet received your completed questionnaire.

The large number (over 86%) of questionnaires returned is very encouraging. But whether we will be able to describe with a high degree of accuracy how Oregon Certified Ombudsmen feel about their volunteer experience depends upon you and the others who have not yet responded. This is because research suggests that those of you who have not yet sent in your questionnaire may have different beliefs and perspectives about the Ombudsman work experience than those who have.

This is the first Oregon State Ombudsman study that has ever been done. It is also the first study looking at organizational characteristics as they relate to volunteer burnout and satisfaction. Therefore, the results are of high importance to those who believe that the Ombudsman advocacy mission is an important factor in protecting and encouraging quality care and residents rights in our Nation's long term care system. But the fact is, the usefulness of our results depends on how accurately we are able to describe what factors shape the ombudsman volunteer experience.

It is for these reasons that I am sending this by certified mail to insure delivery. Your response is important even if you have been inactive or on leave of absence! In case your questionnaire has been lost or misplaced, a replacement questionnaire is enclosed. May I urge you to complete and return it as quickly as possible.

I'll be happy to send you the results of this important study if you want one. Moreover, research results will be carefully assessed to implement program changes to make the Certified Ombudsman volunteer experience more rewarding, effective and meaningful.

Your contribution to the success of this study will be greatly appreciated.

Most sincerely,

Wayne Nelson
Deputy Long Term Care Ombudsman

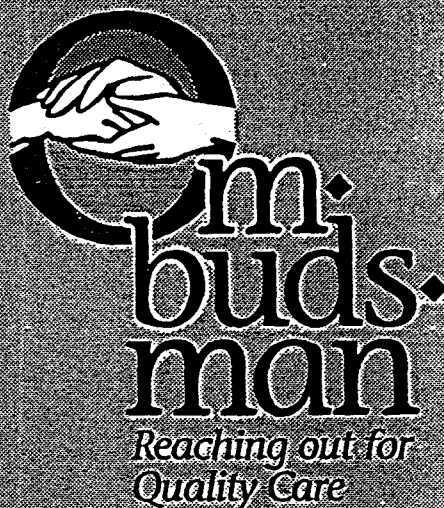
Enclosures



2475 Lancaster Drive, N.E.
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Toll free 1-800-521-2942

APPENDIX E

The Oregon Volunteer Ombudsman Experience:
*An Assessment Study of Volunteer Ombudsmen Attitudes about their Work
and Organizational Experience*



Oregon State University College of Education
Corvallis, Oregon 97331

(Role Conflict and Ambiguity)

1. Below are statements about your work experience as an ombudsman. Please circle the number on the line to the right of each statement indicating how strongly you agree or disagree with it. Circle one number for each. Use the following response categories:

Strongly Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree		Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
			Disagree	Agree			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| a. | I have to do things that should be done differently | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| b. | I work on unnecessary things | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| c. | I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| d. | I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| e. | I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| f. | I have to buck (break) a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| g. | I receive incompatible requests from two or more people | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| h. | I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| i. | I feel certain about how much authority I have | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| j. | There are clear, planned goals and objectives for my job | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| k. | I know that I have divided my time properly | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| l. | I know what my responsibilities are | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| m. | I know exactly what is expected of me | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| n. | Explanation is clear of what has to be done | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

(Job Involvement)

2. We are interested in finding out the degree to which you identify with your work as a volunteer Certified Ombudsman. Please answer all questions. Read each statement carefully and circle one of the response category numbers to the right of the statement that best reflects how much you agree or disagree.

	Strongly Agree 1	Agree 2	Disagree 3	Strongly Disagree 4
a. You can measure a person pretty well by how good a job he does	1	2	3	4
b. The major satisfaction in my life comes from my volunteer job	1	2	3	4
c. For me time spent at work really flies by	1	2	3	4
d. I usually show up for work a little early to get things ready	1	2	3	4
e. The most important things that happen to me involve my work	1	2	3	4
f. Sometimes I lie awake at night thinking ahead to the next day's work	1	2	3	4
g. I am really a perfectionist about my work	1	2	3	4
h. I feel really depressed when I fail at something connected with my volunteer job	1	2	3	4
i. I have other activities more important than my work	1	2	3	4
j. I live, eat and breathe my job	1	2	3	4
k. Quite often I feel like staying home from my volunteer commitment instead of going to the facility	1	2	3	4
l. To me, my work is only a small part of who I am	1	2	3	4
m. I am very much involved personally in my work	1	2	3	4
n. I avoid taking on extra duties and responsibilities in my work	1	2	3	4
o. I used to be more ambitious about my ombudsman work than I am now	1	2	3	4
p. Most things in life are more important than work	1	2	3	4
q. I used to care more about my work, but now other things are more important to me	1	2	3	4
r. Sometimes I'd like to kick myself for the mistakes I make in my work	1	2	3	4

(Organizational Commitment)

3. The statements listed below represent feelings that people might have about the organization for which they volunteer. With respect to your own feelings about the organization for which you are volunteering, the Office of the Long Term Care Ombudsman, please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement by circling the number of the response category that best reflects how much you agree or disagree.

	Strongly Disagree 1	Moderately Disagree 2	Slightly Disagree 3	Neither Disagree or Agree 4	Slightly Agree 5	Moderately Agree 6	Strongly Agree 7
a. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help the organization be successful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c. I feel very little loyalty to this organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e. I find my values and the organization's values are very similar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
g. I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
h. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
i. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
j. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
k. There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
l. Often I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m. I really care about the fate of this organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
n. For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
o. Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

(Role Orientation)

4. In your opinion how accurate are the following ombudsman roles in describing your activities as a certified long term care ombudsman? Circle the number on the scale to the left of the statement that most accurately reflects your opinion about that statements accuracy.

	Very Accurate	Accurate	Neither	Not very Accurate	Not at all Accurate
	1	2	3	4	5
a. Making easier the conditions of residents	1	2	3	4	5
b. Guiding the resident through the proper channels	1	2	3	4	5
c. Serving as a middle-man between the facility (nursing home or adult foster care home) and the resident	1	2	3	4	5
d. Arguing the cause of the resident	1	2	3	4	5
e. Serving as an impartial listener	1	2	3	4	5
f. Translating the rules and regulations of the facility to the residents	1	2	3	4	5
g. Explaining decisions of others to residents	1	2	3	4	5
h. Observing staff practices in long term care facilities	1	2	3	4	5
i. Reforming and improving staff practices in long term care facilities	1	2	3	4	5
j. Occupying a watchdog position to insure adequate facility conditions	1	2	3	4	5
k. Providing emotional support to residents/patients	1	2	3	4	5

(Burnout)

6. Please read each of the following twenty-two statements carefully and decide two things: first, if you ever feel this way about your volunteer job (how often); and second, how strongly you feel this way (intensity). Below each statement you will find two number scales. Circle a number on each scale indicating frequency and intensity of the feeling as experienced by you. Please answer all questions.

EXAMPLES

On most questions you will circle two answers:

Example one: I wake up excited about my work.

HOW OFTEN:

- 1 NEVER
- 2 A FEW TIMES A YEAR OR LESS
- ③ ONCE A MONTH OR LESS
- 4 A FEW TIMES A MONTH
- 5 A FEW TIMES A WEEK
- 6 EVERY DAY

HOW STRONG:

- VERY MILD, BARELY MAJOR, VERY STRONG
- NOTICEABLE MODERATE ③
- 1 2 3 4 5

However, on the questions where you answer "NEVER," you only circle one answer:

Example two: I enjoy talking to others about my work.

HOW OFTEN:

- ① NEVER
- 2 A FEW TIMES A YEAR OR LESS
- 3 ONCE A MONTH OR LESS
- 4 A FEW TIMES A MONTH
- 5 A FEW TIMES A WEEK
- 6 EVERY DAY

HOW STRONG:

- VERY MILD, BARELY MAJOR, VERY STRONG
- NOTICEABLE MODERATE 4
- 1 2 3 4 5

- a. I feel emotionally drained from my work.

HOW OFTEN:

- 1 NEVER
- 2 A FEW TIMES A YEAR OR LESS
- 3 ONCE A MONTH OR LESS
- 4 A FEW TIMES A MONTH
- 5 A FEW TIMES A WEEK
- 6 EVERY DAY

HOW STRONG:

- VERY MILD, BARELY MAJOR, VERY STRONG
- NOTICEABLE MODERATE 4
- 1 2 3 4 5

- b. I feel used up at the end of the workday.

HOW OFTEN:

- 1 NEVER
- 2 A FEW TIMES A YEAR OR LESS
- 3 ONCE A MONTH OR LESS
- 4 A FEW TIMES A MONTH
- 5 A FEW TIMES A WEEK
- 6 EVERY DAY

HOW STRONG:

- VERY MILD, BARELY MAJOR, VERY STRONG
- NOTICEABLE MODERATE 4
- 1 2 3 4 5

- c. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.

HOW OFTEN:

- 1 NEVER
- 2 A FEW TIMES A YEAR OR LESS
- 3 ONCE A MONTH OR LESS
- 4 A FEW TIMES A MONTH
- 5 A FEW TIMES A WEEK
- 6 EVERY DAY

HOW STRONG:

- VERY MILD, BARELY MAJOR, VERY STRONG
- NOTICEABLE MODERATE 4
- 1 2 3 4 5

- j. I've become more callous toward people since I took this job.

HOW OFTEN:

- 1 NEVER
- 2 A FEW TIMES A YEAR OR LESS
- 3 ONCE A MONTH OR LESS
- 4 A FEW TIMES A MONTH
- 5 A FEW TIMES A WEEK
- 6 EVERY DAY

HOW STRONG:

VERY MILD,
BARELY
NOTICEABLE MODERATE MAJOR,
1 2 3 4 5
VERY STRONG

- k. I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.

HOW OFTEN:

- 1 NEVER
- 2 A FEW TIMES A YEAR OR LESS
- 3 ONCE A MONTH OR LESS
- 4 A FEW TIMES A MONTH
- 5 A FEW TIMES A WEEK
- 6 EVERY DAY

HOW STRONG:

VERY MILD,
BARELY
NOTICEABLE MODERATE MAJOR,
1 2 3 4 5
VERY STRONG

- l. I feel very energetic.

HOW OFTEN:

- 1 NEVER
- 2 A FEW TIMES A YEAR OR LESS
- 3 ONCE A MONTH OR LESS
- 4 A FEW TIMES A MONTH
- 5 A FEW TIMES A WEEK
- 6 EVERY DAY

HOW STRONG:

VERY MILD,
BARELY
NOTICEABLE MODERATE MAJOR,
1 2 3 4 5
VERY STRONG

- m. I feel frustrated by my job.

HOW OFTEN:

- 1 NEVER
- 2 A FEW TIMES A YEAR OR LESS
- 3 ONCE A MONTH OR LESS
- 4 A FEW TIMES A MONTH
- 5 A FEW TIMES A WEEK
- 6 EVERY DAY

HOW STRONG:

VERY MILD,
BARELY
NOTICEABLE MODERATE MAJOR,
1 2 3 4 5
VERY STRONG

- n. I feel I am working too hard on my job.

HOW OFTEN:

- 1 NEVER
- 2 A FEW TIMES A YEAR OR LESS
- 3 ONCE A MONTH OR LESS
- 4 A FEW TIMES A MONTH
- 5 A FEW TIMES A WEEK
- 6 EVERY DAY

HOW STRONG:

VERY MILD,
BARELY
NOTICEABLE MODERATE MAJOR,
1 2 3 4 5
VERY STRONG

- o. I don't really care what happens to some residents.

HOW OFTEN:

- 1 NEVER
- 2 A FEW TIMES A YEAR OR LESS
- 3 ONCE A MONTH OR LESS
- 4 A FEW TIMES A MONTH
- 5 A FEW TIMES A WEEK
- 6 EVERY DAY

HOW STRONG:

VERY MILD,
BARELY
NOTICEABLE MODERATE MAJOR,
1 2 3 4 5
VERY STRONG

- p. Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.

HOW OFTEN:

- 1 NEVER
- 2 A FEW TIMES A YEAR OR LESS
- 3 ONCE A MONTH OR LESS
- 4 A FEW TIMES A MONTH
- 5 A FEW TIMES A WEEK
- 6 EVERY DAY

HOW STRONG:

VERY MILD,
BARELY
NOTICEABLE MODERATE VERY STRONG
1 2 3 4 5

- q. I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my residents.

HOW OFTEN:

- 1 NEVER
- 2 A FEW TIMES A YEAR OR LESS
- 3 ONCE A MONTH OR LESS
- 4 A FEW TIMES A MONTH
- 5 A FEW TIMES A WEEK
- 6 EVERY DAY

HOW STRONG:

VERY MILD,
BARELY
NOTICEABLE MODERATE VERY STRONG
1 2 3 4 5

- r. I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.

HOW OFTEN:

- 1 NEVER
- 2 A FEW TIMES A YEAR OR LESS
- 3 ONCE A MONTH OR LESS
- 4 A FEW TIMES A MONTH
- 5 A FEW TIMES A WEEK
- 6 EVERY DAY

HOW STRONG:

VERY MILD,
BARELY
NOTICEABLE MODERATE VERY STRONG
1 2 3 4 5

- s. I feel like I am at the end of my rope.

HOW OFTEN:

- 1 NEVER
- 2 A FEW TIMES A YEAR OR LESS
- 3 ONCE A MONTH OR LESS
- 4 A FEW TIMES A MONTH
- 5 A FEW TIMES A WEEK
- 6 EVERY DAY

HOW STRONG:

VERY MILD,
BARELY
NOTICEABLE MODERATE VERY STRONG
1 2 3 4 5

- t. In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly.

HOW OFTEN:

- 1 NEVER
- 2 A FEW TIMES A YEAR OR LESS
- 3 ONCE A MONTH OR LESS
- 4 A FEW TIMES A MONTH
- 5 A FEW TIMES A WEEK
- 6 EVERY DAY

HOW STRONG:

VERY MILD,
BARELY
NOTICEABLE MODERATE VERY STRONG
1 2 3 4 5

- u. I feel exhilarated after working closely with my residents.

HOW OFTEN:

- 1 NEVER
- 2 A FEW TIMES A YEAR OR LESS
- 3 ONCE A MONTH OR LESS
- 4 A FEW TIMES A MONTH
- 5 A FEW TIMES A WEEK
- 6 EVERY DAY

HOW STRONG:

VERY MILD,
BARELY
NOTICEABLE MODERATE VERY STRONG
1 2 3 4 5

(Demographic Questions)

- v. I feel residents blame me for some of their problems.

HOW OFTEN:

- 1 NEVER
- 2 A FEW TIMES A YEAR OR LESS
- 3 ONCE A MONTH OR LESS
- 4 A FEW TIMES A MONTH
- 5 A FEW TIMES A WEEK
- 6 EVERY DAY

HOW STRONG:

VERY MILD,
BARELY
NOTICEABLE MODERATE MAJOR,
1 2 3 4 5
VERY STRONG

7. We are interested in developing profile information regarding the population of Oregon ombudsmen. The following information is important to this study and will be kept confidential.

- a. Are you a Volunteer Certified Ombudsman? (Circle one number)

- 1 YES
- 2 NO

- b. Your sex. (Circle one number)

- 1 MALE
- 2 FEMALE

- c. Your present age: _____ YEARS

- d. Which is the highest level of education that you have completed? (Circle one number)

- 1 GRADE SCHOOL
- 2 SOME HIGH SCHOOL
- 3 HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA
- 4 SOME COLLEGE OR TECHNICAL SCHOOL
- 5 TECHNICAL DEGREE OR TWO-YEAR DEGREE
- 6 COLLEGE DEGREE
- 7 GRADUATE SCHOOL

- e. How long have you served as a Certified Ombudsman: _____ YEARS

Thank you for your help!